

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COMMUNITY SUPPORT FOR GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION
IN THE DORMAA MUNICIPALITY OF THE BRONG-AHAFO REGION,
GHANA

BY

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: Date:

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Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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ABSTRACT

The research was an attempt to find out the extent to which communities in the Dormaa Municipal area support girl-child education. The sample for the study consisted of one urban community, two peri-urban and two rural communities. In all 134 participants (some of whom were purposively selected and others randomly chosen) participated in the study. Data was collected through questionnaires and interview. The reliability of the questionnaire was tested at Cronbach Alpha value of 0.678. The SPSS computer software was used to analyze the data.

The study revealed that parents generally had positive attitudes and perceptions about female education, and that they wanted higher educational levels for their girls so they could acquire better jobs. They perceived girl-child education as equally important as that of boys. The support the communities provided for girl-child education included: guidance and counseling, provision of school uniforms, financial support and enrolment drive. However, it was found out that the support provided by the communities was inadequate.

The problems they faced in supporting girl-child education also included financial difficulties, sexual relations that lead to teenage pregnancy, lack of community support, peer pressure/influence and others. The study recommends that the municipal assembly should establish a fund to support needy girls. Also bye-laws should be passed and enforced to deal with men who have sexual relations with school girls.

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DEDICATION

To my husband and my children.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Education has been identified as the cornerstone of every country's development and the key that unlocks the doors to development (Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MOFEP), 2007). In this light, Ghana spends a sizeable proportion of her gross national product (GNP) on the education of its citizens. In the past decade, Ghana's spending on education has been between 28 and 40 percent of its annual budget (MOFEP, 2007). In 2007, government spent ₵11,322,257 million representing 30.62% of available total national revenue on Education (MOFEP, 2007).

The huge spending by government on education explains the government's desire to develop the country through education. Thus, the Ghana government has set itself targets for access to education by the citizenry. The targets are: By 2015, the government is expecting every child to complete Universal Basic Education; by 2015 all students are supposed to complete junior high school, and thus they should complete primary school by 2012. Moreover, by 2012 enrolment rate of junior high level must reach 100%. It means that the Primary Gross Admission Ratio must reach 100% by 2006/07. By 2007 all children must be admitted into primary one so that they would be able to complete

primary school by 2010 and junior high school by 2015. So the primary Gross Enrolment Ratio is targeted to be 107.4% by 2012 and the kindergarten 100% by 2015 (Ministry of Education, Science and Sports, 2008).

This is a clear example of the government's concern for the development of quality human resource through quality education. Over the years, therefore, different governments have put different measures in place for the achievement of quality and successful education for all. Thus, according to Antwi (1992), between 1960 and 1975, as many as nine different educational committees were appointed to conduct comprehensive review of the educational system in the country. The various committees provided useful recommendations and suggestions on how education could be related to the socioeconomic needs of the country at that time.

One major intervention by the Government of Ghana in the early 1990s to see to the educational development of the country was the introduction of the free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (fCUBE) in 1995. The 1992 constitution urges governments to embark on this programme to meet the current global educational development needs. Article 25 clause 1, subsection (a), states that "basic education shall be free, compulsory and available to all" (p. 27). Thus, the fCUBE programme makes it clear that every child of school age, who is between ages five and six as determined by the Ministry of Education, Science and Sports shall attend a course of instruction in a school recognised for that purpose.

In Ghana it is believed that to become a middle income country by the year 2020, relevant and quality basic education should be provided nationwide (Antwi, 1992: p. 30). The fCUBE programme, therefore, focuses on:

1. Improving quality of teaching and learning, particularly in the public basic schools thereby reducing the poor performance of pupils. One of the strategies is to improve teacher-community relationships.
2. Improving the efficiency and effectiveness of management performance.
3. Ensuring access and participation by expanding infrastructural facilities and services to enhance access for all children of school going age.
4. Enhancing equity in the provision of educational services and facilities for all, with particular focus on girls and the disadvantaged children.
5. Addressing issues of enrolment and retention for all children of school-going age.

The fCUBE policy is an attempt to make access to education easy to all Ghanaian children. Thus, to make the programme successful, the Government of Ghana has embarked on a number of intervention programmes including a payment of Capitation Grant. Prior to the introduction of the Capitation Grant, parents were made to pay levies on culture, sports, examination and others. The levies ranged from GH¢2.50 to GH¢6 and varied from one district to another and school to school (MOE, 1995).

With the introduction of the capitation grant, however, these financial burdens have been removed from parents. The capitation grant is the main source of funding provided to schools to meet their day to day running costs. It is intended to contribute towards the general operating costs of schools including activities such as enrolment drives, provision of teaching and learning material, school management, support to needy pupils, community and school relationship, in-service training, minor repairs, and payment of sports and culture levies to the district and national levels. The scheme is flexible in nature and affords the school management committees to decide on how the funds are to be used in meeting school's day-to-day running cost.

To ensure effective implementation of the Capitation Grant Scheme 40 deprived districts were selected to run the scheme on a pilot basis in 2003/2004 academic year. An amount of GH¢3.50 per female pupil and GH¢2.50 per male pupil was paid to the schools (www.ghanacastele.gov, 2007). Following the success of the pilot scheme, the Ministry of Education, Science and Sports began the full implementation of the programme to cover all basic schools in the 2005/2006 academic year, in which basic schools receive Gh¢3 per pupil enrolled per year. In his 2007 budget statement to Parliament, the Minister of Finance and Economic Planning reiterated that to increase access to basic education for both girls and boys, Government would continue to pay capitation grant to all public basic schools (A Citizen Guide to the 2007 Budget Statement).

In spite of this approach the communities still have a role to play. Members of the boards of governors, parent-teachers associations, town

development committees, non-governmental organizations, school management committees, religious bodies and the residents in the various schools and communities participate in the administration of schools.

Moreover a number of interventions have been introduced to ensure the smooth running of schools. Two of such intervention is Government of Ghana (GOG) imprests and Whole School Development (W.S.D) imprests.

Another intervention aimed at increasing access to education is the introduction of a school feeding programme on pilot basis in the 2005. In the above-mentioned budget statement, the Minister mentioned that the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) School Feeding Programme would be expanded to cover more basic schools, so as to promote easy access, retention of pupils in schools as well as improving the quality of education in deprived areas of the country.

Moreover, the new educational policy which seeks to equip the youth well enough to meet the challenges of the 21st century was launched by the President of the Republic of Ghana in April, 2007 (Owusu & Allotey, 2007). All the reforms were aimed at equipping the youth with the requisite knowledge and skills needed for the development of the country, with special focus on literacy, numeracy, and information and communication technology.

In spite of the effort made by the government in the development of education in Ghana, the rate of gender disparities in education is higher especially in secondary schools and universities (Oteng, 2005). According to the Ministry of Education (MOE) (1998) what is most alarming about gender disparities in

educational participation is that from Junior Secondary School (now Junior High School) to Senior Secondary School (now Senior High School) to the tertiary level, the population of girls' decreases tremendously as they climb the educational ladder. The average male/female enrolment for the three academic years, 1998/99, 1999/2000 and 2000/2001, was in the ratios of 72:28 for the universities and 78:22 for the polytechnics as against the national norm of 50:50 (Education Reform Review Commission, 2002). According to the Commission, the major factor accounting for this has been the low female enrolment and participation rate at the pre-tertiary level. For example, in the 1999/2000 academic year, the gross enrolment rate for girls was 49.4% at pre-school, 47.2% at primary, 45.4% at the JSS (now JHS) and 41.0% at the SSS (now SHS).

In Ghana, community participation is vital in the management of education. It recognizes that the provision of basic education is a joint venture between government and the communities. Communities desiring to have schools established for them were encouraged to put up structures to house the schools. Religious bodies were also given the mandate to establish and run schools. Education is now community-based.

The origin of community support may be traced to the Western education by the merchants and the Christian missionaries in the colonial era. During that time, communities undertook communal labour to help put up structures for schools. The fCUBE programme has given the communities the mandate to support, control and manage the educational sectors. So members of the

community have to claim ownership and sacrifice for the development of the schools.

In the modern society women's role in development cannot be over-emphasized. Unfortunately, statistics in Ghana show that female participation in education has always lagged behind that of males. Statistically, it has been established that, in Ghana, the number of boys in school is greater than that of girls. For example, a publication by the Girl-Child Education Unit (2007) on the gross enrolment ratio for males and females at the kindergarten, primary, junior high and senior high school levels by regions in 2005/06 makes a similar claim. This situation calls for some interventions.

Statement of the Problem

To improve the quality of education in the country, the Government of Ghana has involved communities in the implementation of the FCUBE programme since 1996. The communities were (and still are) to assist in providing structures such as classrooms and furniture whilst the government would provide personnel and equipment. Ghana's educational system aims at ensuring equal opportunity for both boys and girls (Ministry of Education, Science and Sports, 2008) to equip them with the fundamental knowledge and skills needed for personal as well as national development. However, educational development in the country appears to have favoured males more than females.

In order to, increase and sustain girls' interest and participation in Science, Technology and Mathematics education up to higher levels of education, the Ministry of Education, Science and Sports, and the Ghana Education Service have

put in place Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STME) clinics programme for girls since 1987. The programme has grown from strength to strength and gained national and international recognition (Girls Education Unit, 1996). The Ministry of Education has again made provision in the fCUBE programme to cater for the participation of as many girls as possible, irrespective of where they come from (Girls' Education Unit, 1996). However, girls' participation in science, technology and mathematics and education in general in the Dormaa Municipality has been found to be comparatively lower than that of boys over the years.

Although the government is making efforts to increase enrolment with assistance from the communities and groups, there are still gender gaps at all levels of our educational ladder especially at the second cycle and tertiary levels. According to Lartioko (2007), in spite of all the progress made about the promotion of gender issues, gender inequality remains one of the central challenges of the 21st century. Research has shown that gender disparities are greater in Ghana's secondary schools and universities (Oteng, 2005). In the urban areas, the difference is not clearly seen but in the rural areas, it is clear and distinct. The situation may be worse in the Dormaa Municipality of the Brong Ahafo Region, if not the same as other parts of Ghana. The rate at which the number of girls declines as they climb the educational ladder is discouraging. For example, at the junior high level, the Dormaa Municipality recorded a dropout rate of 2.1% for boys and 3.0% for girls in 2005/2006 academic year (Dormaa Municipal Education, 2006).

There have been speculations that tend to attribute a number of factors, one of which being that female education lacks community support. These speculations have however not been established through research. This is what has necessitated this research which aims at finding out the extent to which communities within the Dormaa Municipality support girl-child education. The study specifically examined the kind and level of support the Dormaa Municipal community provides to keep girls of school-going age in school.

Purpose of the Study

The study aimed at identifying the kinds of support the Dormaa Municipal community represented by parents, opinion leaders and royalty provided towards the enrolment, participation and retention of girls in school.

Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were to find out: the perception of the Dormaa Municipal community's perception about girl-child education; the kind of support provided by the community towards girl-child education; the problems that inhibit the community from supporting girl-child education; and the ways in which the community thinks girl-child education can be improved.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following questions:

1. How does the Dormaa Municipal community perceive girl-child education?

2. What kind of support does the Dormaa community provide towards girl-child education?
3. What are the problems that inhibit communities in the Dormaa Municipality from supporting girl-child education?
4. In what ways do the respondents think community support for girl-child education in the municipality can be improved?

Significance of the Study

The results of the study, which would be disseminated through seminars, will be of much significance to educational authorities within the Dormaa Municipal Girl-Child Education Unit in particular. The findings may be used to plan how to get dropout girls back to school. The Municipal Director of Education and the Municipal Girl-Child Education Unit and NGOs' operating in the Municipality may use the findings to plan their programmes. For instance, since most people in the communities normally give priority to male education, they need to be educated on the benefits of educating the girl-child.

Also, the findings will serve as reference source to all stakeholders in education including education policy makers, teachers, parents, community teachers, school counsellors, pupils and students. From the analysis, it was gathered that support provided towards girl-child education in order of priority included: guidance and counselling, provision of school uniforms, financial assistance, and enrolment drive. Furthermore, the support provided to keep the girl-child in school, in order of priority, included: provision of school materials, provision of money for lunch, transportation to and from school and provision of

money for snack. Thus, the above-mentioned policy makers and implementers can rely on this information to put the proper measures in place to assist the girl child.

Once again, since the study has provided information about how girl-child education delivery is suffering from problems such as financial difficulties, sexual relations/teenage pregnancy, lack of community support, peer pressure/influence and child labour, stakeholders in education can now have information to help plan their programmes towards better girl-child education delivery.

Similarly, since the community itself has provided what it thinks can help improve and encourage female education delivery in the municipality, it will help policy planners and implementers know what they should exactly do. Some of these suggestions included: financial and other material scholarship assistance, law enforcement, counselling, mass education, enrolment drive for girls, formation of students clubs, and institution of awards for girls.

The study will as well serve as a guide for other researchers.

Delimitation

The scope of the study was limited to community support for the girl-child education in the Dormaa Municipality. Again the study targeted only the Dormaa Municipality. Five out of the nine communities within the municipality were chosen for the study. These communities represented the urban (Dormaa Ahenkro), peri-urban (Pamuagya, Adomasa) and rural (Atesikrom, Asunsu) settings.

Limitations

The study had some limitations even though there were conscious efforts to avoid all possible hindrances. In the first place, there were problems with the translation, from Twi to English, of the respondents' responses. Naturally, it is difficult, if not impossible, to capture the exact picture or words of what someone says when we are doing translations. Thus, in this study, it was difficult to express exactly in English what respondents said in Twi, especially when I had to listen and write at the same time; there was little time (or no time) to think about what to write. So it is possible that a few translations may not have perfectly reflected the views expressed by some respondents. However, there is no compelling reason to believe that this has detracted from the overall validity of the data.

Summary of Chapter One

Education has been found to be an important element in national development. Thus, governments have always tried in diverse ways to put mechanisms in place for the purposes of educational development. In this chapter, the researcher considered the meaning of education and its significance to national development. There was examination of various educational interventions put in place by the governments of Ghana over the years. These included: financial interventions, various committees for reviewing educational policies, the fCUBE programme, Government of Ghana and Whole School Development Imprests, the Capitation Grant, the NEPAD School Feeding Programme. The chapter has also looked at the need for community support and the rate of gender disparities at various educational levels in Ghana.

The chapter stated the problem that warranted this research as well as the research questions that serve as a guide to the focus of the thesis. The purpose and significance of the study were also provided.

Preview of Remaining Chapters

The thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter One considered the background to the study, the problem that warranted this research as well as the research questions that informed the study, the purpose and significance of the study, and delimitations. Chapter Two is a review of related literature. Issues and concepts such as: gender disparities in education, socio-cultural and economic factors affecting female education, parental attitude and factors which influence them, benefits of female education and community support will be considered. These issues and concepts are discussed by considering views that have been expressed by other scholars. The purpose of the review is to find out the amount of work that has been done on the topic for this thesis. This will help to shape this work and place it in its proper context.

Chapter Three describes the methodology adopted for the research. Under the methodology, the following are looked at: the research design, the study population, the sample and sampling procedure, the research instruments, the data collection procedure, method of data analysis, validity and reliability of the instruments and limitations. Chapter Four deals with the data analysis, whilst Chapter Five provides the findings vis-à-vis the research questions. Recommendations and suggestions for further studies are also stated in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews literature relevant to the study. The review is organised under the following sub-headings:

- (i) Gender disparities in education,
- (ii) Socio-cultural and economic factors,
- (iii) Parental attitudes towards girls' education,
- (iv) Benefits of female education, and
- (v) Community support for female education.

It is important that the problem of gender inequity is addressed at all levels of education for both male and female to nurture their potential. Some renowned educationists in their time saw inequity in education and strongly advocated equal education for both sexes. Plato (367BC, cited in Rusk, 1987) in *The Republic* stated that the education of females should not be differentiated from that of males in any respect because females equally need education to tap their talents. The participation of boys in education exceeds that of girls. In the urban areas, the difference is not clearly seen but in the rural areas, it is clear and distinct. Some parents especially in the rural communities do not see the need for them to send their girls to school (Duodu, 2005). When one goes to most work places, one finds that men outnumber women. The need to rebuild the country's economy for

progress and development makes it imperative for the mobilization of female labour force at all levels and concerns of the country. Women, when given the right educational opportunities, can perform like men, or even better. Studies documenting the importance of female education mentioned such benefits as reduced infant and maternal mortality, enhanced family health and welfare and increased economic productivity (Ohene-Asiedu, 2009 p. 24). There have been instances where girls have excelled and outclassed boys. In 2008, the best West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) candidate and runner-up were both females (Bonney, 2009).

The goals of education may be attained through community support towards girls' education, modification of educational system, change of public attitude to female education, changes in certain beliefs in our culture, providing girls with basic things they will need for school and encouragement. This is because these are factors that affect female education.

Gender Disparities in Education

From time immemorial, the woman has traditionally been considered as the "home-keeper", making the home generally a woman's place. In religions such as Christianity and Islam, images and symbols are mostly masculine. Right from creation, the woman has been portrayed as having been created from a man's rib. God is the father, a male figure, and Jesus took the shape of man and in the New Testament of the Bible, all the apostles were men (Owusu, 2004). This perception persists so strongly that it even affects parental attitude to female education.

Even with the introduction of formal education, the education of females has been relegated to the background over the years. In Ghana, the missionaries started female education with the training of girls to be good servants and housewives. Besides reading, writing, arithmetic and religion, education for the girl during the period had two specific goals, namely: marriage and competence in domestic arts. The British colonialists, steeped in Victorian values about women's roles, introduced a curriculum for African girls stressing domestic activities instead of the arts or sciences as was pursued by boys (Graham, 1976). Our African parents, in their male dominated society and following traditional assumption of women's roles, preferred boy's education to girls.

Education is said to be the foundation of development. Yet, according to the African Academy of Sciences (AAS) – FEMED (1995), as many as 36 million girls in sub-Saharan Africa are missing from school, and those who gain access to education are often poorly served. While the same number of boys and girls enrol in first grade, by fourth grade 50% of the female students have dropped out. Sixty-four percent of those girls who enrol leave school before they have acquired full literacy. By the end of the primary school cycle, the completion rate for girls is only 34%. According to Vinod (1996), educationally, women are worse off than men, with a literacy rate of 35 percent compared with 60 percent for men in the 15 – 45 year age group. In general, the proportion of girls who enrol in primary school is smaller than that of boys (48 percent compared with 53 percent). Only 15 percent of girls (compared with 21 percent of boys) who enter

primary school continue to grade 8. A smaller share of girls than boys passes the primary school leaving certificate examination (Vinod, 1996).

Also, in Ghana, the number of boys in schools becomes much greater than girls as they move higher the school ladder. At secondary and tertiary levels the discrepancies between boys and girls' education increase radically. At Kindergarten and Primary levels, the disparities are not great (Girl-Child Education Unit, 2007).

In the Dormaa Municipality of the Brong Ahafo Region, the rate at which the number of girls declines as they climb the educational ladder is discouraging. Table 1 on the next page indicates that gender gaps still exist in boys and girls' admission enrolment and retention rates. For the year 2007, the enrolment report indicates that there were more boys in school than girls. From the table the enrolment of girls at the kindergarten level was encouraging. The number decreased at the primary and the junior secondary school levels respectively. The total enrolment of boys at the kindergarten level was 5,148 and girls 5,608. The total number for the boys at the primary level was 12,222 and that of girls is 11350. At the junior secondary school the total was 4,028 for the boys and 3,521 for the girls. In all the senior secondary schools in the Dormaa District, boys outnumber girls at all levels, from SSS.1 to SSS.3.

Table 1**Dormaa School Enrolment by the Level and Gender 2006/07**

Level	1		2		3		4		5		6		Total	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
KG	3219	3501	1943	208									5148	5608
Prim	2586	2497	2116	2140	2065	1946	2010	1733	1806	1598	1639	1431	12222	11350
JHS	1499	1363	1362	1121	1067	1018							4028	3521
SHS	571	338	714	460	698	467							1983	1265

Source: GES Planning Unit. Key: B, Boys; G, Girls; T, Total; KG, Kindergarten, Prim, Primary; JHS, Junior High School; SHS, Senior High School.

The statistics in Table 1 suggests that the economy of the Dormaa Municipal area might decline if female-child education was not taken seriously since in the national population females outnumber the males (Ghana Statistical Services (2002). There was the need for the Ministry of Education, Science and Sports and the community to find the kind of support for girls' education which would equip its women to contribute meaningfully to the development of the nation. Statistics from international studies and estimates said two-thirds of all illiterate individuals world-wide were – women, with women receiving only 10 percent of worldwide income (Lartioko, 2007).

Also, many girls drop out of school even before completion of the Junior High School. For example, at the junior high level the Dormaa Municipality recorded a dropout rate of 2.1% for boys and 3.0% for girls in 2005/2006 academic year (Dormaa Municipal Education, 2006) A number of factors have been found to be responsible for female dropouts: Lack of balanced national investment in education, wide spread poverty, inadequate learning and achievement opportunities in school, lack of job opportunities for women with low levels of formal education, and the persistence of negative traditional views on women's roles in society. Again, school systems have expanded at rates below population growth. Girls may not be able to find a school near home; mothers in rural areas normally have to walk their children long distances to school before going to work. Once in school, children learn by recitation in overcrowded classrooms with lack of adequate instructional materials and qualified trained

teachers. Therefore, many children do not master basic literacy skills and scientific knowledge. Their performance on a daily basis is poor.

According to Forum for African Women Educationists (FAWE), Ghana Chapter, (2000), girls who leave school before mastering basic writing and reading skills frequently relapse into illiteracy and as future adults add to an already high percentage of illiterate women. Thus, as one of the interventions to curb female dropouts, in a news item, FAWE News looks at the problem of wastage in education under the theme: "Closing the Gender Gap in Girls' Education: Curbing Dropout". It reviews strategies and promising interventions that various governments and organizations like FAWE and other agencies are putting in place to combat dropout.

According to African Academy of Sciences AAS-FAMED (1995), economic pressures affect the provision of education and the ability of parents to pay fees for all their children. Expenditure cuts related to the African economic crisis and structural adjustment programmes imply that already impoverished households have to meet much of the cost of educating their children. Under severe economic circumstances, parents choose to withdraw girls from school. Poverty-stricken households, especially those headed by women, cannot afford exorbitant requirements such as uniforms for school attendance.

Also, the quality of school, including infrastructure as well as curriculum, is a critical factor in parents' assessment of the value of educating their daughters. Teachers may regard girls as less able to learn than boys and may resort to physical punishment to enforce learning, which puts fear in the student. Girls

may be pushed to learn stereotypical subjects such as cookery rather than the science and technology which they require for access to modern careers. Examination failure and need for grade repetition reinforce suspicions that girls do not belong in school.

Furthermore, school environments that appear orderly may in reality not motivate and challenge children to explore and experiment with variety of ideas and concepts. Often school textbooks and their reading materials portray the roles of women in society and their participation in national development as insignificant. Traditional beliefs about girls and women's roles discourage investment in their education. Traditionally, most roles are gender-constructed. This is worst in the poor countries. In some cultures early marriages are a requirement from girls, which entails early withdrawal of girls from school before mastery of literacy.

In Malawi, for example, about 85 percent of the population lives in rural areas, subsisting on small plots of land and using simple tools to till the land (Vinod, 1996). The low level of available technology results in heavy domestic work for women, who account for most food production. Girls help their mothers with domestic tasks such as fetching water, hauling wood, and grinding maize. About 68 percent of girls reportedly engage in domestic chores compared with 39 percent of boys. Although women contribute substantially to the agrarian economy, girls in many poor families are seen as burdens – hence the desire to marry them off early (Vinod, 1996).

Parents have cited various constraints for not sending their girls to school. These include: the need to rely on the girls for domestic work, crowded classrooms, and distance to schools, payment of school fees and other school expenses. Malawi, indeed, has a shortage of schools and classrooms. Many classes are held in schoolyards. Under the hot sun, students battle to read and write. When it rains, there is considerable disturbance as students who have been studying outside mostly crowd into classrooms to continue their school day.

Over the years, Ghanaian authorities have repeatedly stated their commitment to increased female participation in the country's socio-economic development. But the majority of women are still not economically active. The national norm of enrolment is that the male-female ratio should be 50:50 (Educational Reform Review Commission, 2002). Thus, ignoring such broader issue as women's rights to social justice and economic independence, the relative dearth of economically active women in the Ghanaian economy can be seen as important factor contributing to labour scarcity, and in turn restricting the realization of national potential for development.

Traditionally, women and girls have played little part in the work of the Ghanaian society outside the home. Religion, social traditions and even certain economic and political considerations have all favoured a pattern of early marriage and child-bearing for girls. Families favoured early marriage of their daughters for several reasons, such as a means of safeguarding their chastity; as a way of obtaining relief from the expenses of support and as a means of accessing bride-wealth (Agyemang, 2000). Girls themselves prefer early marriage to late

marriage for fear of not getting husbands if they delay. It is not uncommon to hear girls comment that the men are few so if they do not start early they will not get somebody to marry them. Ghana may now be characterised as a society undergoing uneven change. The advancement of women into a more active social and economic role is in progress, but this is much more evident in the urban areas, where female enrolments in all levels of education have recently shown rapid increases, and female employment in a range of occupations is significant. The rural areas remain much more backward. In the rural areas most parents are reluctant to send their daughters to school (Duodu, 2005). This has affected female employment. Females are found working as secretaries and typists, particularly in the public sector. In the private sector, even in large enterprises, it is still common to see these tasks performed by men. The continued absence of significant numbers of females in the category of administrative and managerial works indicates that it is still rare for women to reach the top-level positions in industry, commerce and government.

The foregoing analysis and discussion raises no doubt that there is the need for stakeholders, NGOs, individuals and various communities to make conscious efforts to assist governments in their quest to providing quality education for the female child. This is because girls' education is essential. The education of more females will accumulate the country's desire to achieve sustainable development, for female education can break the cycle of poverty and control population growth (Adjinah, 2005). According to Boye (2005) research has proved that female education breaks the cycle of poverty and betters health

conditions. There is, therefore, the need for special attention and support for girls which will propel them to also educate their children in future. As Afegba, Madison, Issaka and Sulaymana (2000) quoted Dr. Aggrey, “If you educate a man, you educate an individual, but if you educate a woman, you educate a whole nation”. Thus, it is high time we supported the girl-child because she can equally make it through education. Where there is financial as well as psychological support from the community and parents, girls have better chances of completing primary school and progressing to the secondary and tertiary levels.

Socio-Cultural and Socio-Economic Factors

The majority of the youth have been socialised to accept gender inequality as a norm; it is reinforced by various religious, economic, political, social and legal institutions, all of which emphasise the inferior position of women in the society. For instance, the Akans have a proverb which says: “If a woman purchases a gun, it is kept in a man’s room”. This reinforces the society’s idea that the woman must subject herself to the man’s control. Most religious groups, especially Islam, do not allow women to preach the sermon or take leadership positions. Most of our men never allow women to lead them. Moreover, women who are very brilliant and outspoken are normally branded as witches. Socio-cultural beliefs, customs and values influence females to drop out of school. Again it is believed that the place of the woman is the kitchen. Because of this line of thinking, some people sell their chicken before the eggs are hatched and uproot their cassavas before they mature. They wonder why they should send

their girls to school and waste money and time when they can make money through them and when they have taught them all they need to know at home. People regard girls as less able to learn than boys. There is persistence of negative traditional views on women's roles in society especially in the rural areas. Traditionally, school-age girls often look after young siblings while parents are away.

Also, there are long-standing traditions in Africa, which emphasise the home as the place of learning for many of life's important lessons. Parents may feel that sending a girl to school takes up too much of the valuable time needed to learn cultural traditions and practical skills (AAS-FEMED, 1995). No doubt, girls in Africa must become culturally competent and have a great deal to learn from their parents, the extended family, and the community.

Furthermore, Ghanaians traditionally value apprenticeships and initiation rites undertaken during the onset of puberty more than the formal education. Initiation ceremonies like puberty rites, known among the Akans as "Bragoro" and "Dipo" among the Krobo's of Ghana, are rampant. These ceremonies inform the girls that they are mature enough to become wives. Sometimes the ceremonies are organised during school periods and when it happens the girls have to stay away from school for so many days so as to go through these initiation rites.

Apart from the socio-cultural factors which account for low female participation in schools, socio-economic ones may also influence it. Parents' occupation is one of the socio-economic factors. While fathers are mostly

subsistence farmers, women are petty traders and housewives, sending girls to school becomes a problem. Nowadays, most parents are aware of the benefits of sending their children to school, but where a choice has to be made because of lower-income earnings, it is the girls who are likely to drop out (Okojie, Chiegwe & Okpokumu, 1996). Thus, in cases where parents are low-income earners with limited resources, male children are given preference. Family size is also another factor.

Again, parents' place of residence determines girls' participation in education. In most rural areas about four communities have one primary school and junior high school and so children have to walk long distances to school. This also affects access to information. For instance, in the urban areas, information is made available to the child, unlike the rural areas where access to information is limited. Those in urban areas have comparatively less problems with access to social amenities. There are means to go to school; the household chores are less; community norms favour education and employment opportunities. Urban parents are more likely to normally take their children, both boys and girls' education seriously.

According to Rugh (2000) certain background characteristics of parents have been shown in a number of studies to be correlated with educational participation. The three most important ones are economic level, parental education and place of residence. Parents' decisions about their children's schooling may be largely based on finance. It is nevertheless important to review the various costs and benefits as parents may perceive them (Rugh, 2000). For

Rugh, parents with educational status attach much more importance to their girls' education. The daughters of educated women are likely to go to school.

Besides, the quality of schools plays an important role. In the remote areas some schools have poor facilities, overcrowded classrooms, poorly maintained buildings, lack of equipment in their laboratories, absence of teaching materials, insufficient and unqualified teaching personnel. Poor quality schools lead to poor academic performance, hence failure in the final examinations. Poor performance is more discouraging to girls. When girls fail, they prefer dropping out to repeating; whereas boys stay on to repeat the class. Poor performance by girls will also discourage parents who would prefer spending such money paying boys' school fees. Parents and even the girls themselves normally do not see the opportunities that are in girls' education. Girls and their parents think about how they can get good marriage rather than education.

Parental Attitudes towards Girls' Education

Poor attitude of parents towards their daughters' education may be due to low opportunities open to girls on the job market. Many families find it prudent to invest in boys because mostly boys are better placed to explore most formal labour market opportunities.

Some parents too are of the view that girls will get married: No matter the amount of money you spend on them, they will be taken away from the family for ever by their husbands. So they do not see the reason why they should spend money on such girls. According to Boakye (1997) parental aspiration for girls

tends to be low, affecting their attitude towards girls' education and ultimately girls' participation. Some parents think men are heads of households and, therefore, they are more likely to assist their siblings. Also, they believe that girls normally are unable to complete their education, wasting financial resources and opportunity, as a result of teenage pregnancy. Thus, they have the conviction that it is more profitable to send the male-child to school. Some religious values concerning the need to protect female virginity also lead some parents to discourage their girls from going to school (Boakye, 1997).

Moreover, parents who are irresponsible see no value in education more especially for their girls. These parents mostly find it difficult to provide the basic needs of their children. Children from such parents are likely to have poor school attendance which consequently results in dropout. Girls are used by parents to provide services like cooking, fetching water, washing, taking care of children and attending farm with parents. According to Boakye (1997) fostering culture in the country allows parents to give their girls to relatives in urban areas as house helps. From the foregoing one can say that gender disparities can be solved if parents and the entire community will be ready to support girls' education.

Benefits of Female Education

Education is the foundation of development, so when a woman's place is not only confined to the kitchen, but is extended also to the classroom, her education ultimately benefits her inputs in the kitchen and the home (FAWE 2000). The education of all females is essential for sustained development as it

makes them develop their potential to become intelligent and productive citizens. Education brings social and economic benefits to both the individuals and to their nations. Most people, including those in the government departments responsible for education policies recognize that girls' absence from education undermines their potential contribution to national development. Until education of the girl-child has been taken seriously, the government agenda for the development of the nation would be a mirage (Adjinah, 2005). According to a former UN Secretary-General, Kofi Annan, "study after study has taught us that there is no tool for development more effective than the education of girls" (quoted in Oteng, 2005). Improving the opportunities for girls to acquire education would be of great benefit to the nation. It will increase the hopes and expectations of millions of African girls, the business people, scientists, civil servants, politicians, mothers, farmers, and care-takers of the future (AAS-FEMED, 1995).

African women have been described as the "foundation of life in Africa" (AAS-FEMED, 1995). They are workers, care-takers, homemakers and many other things. Female education is one of the most powerful forces for development in low-income countries. Many benefits to the family accrue when the women of the house are educated. Family health care and nutrition improve, and there is a high rate of child survival and better physical and intellectual development. Women with education marry later and are more likely to use a contraceptive method successfully; with the result that they have the number of children they want, and when they want them. Each additional year of schooling for women is associated with a decline in infant mortality of between 5% and

10% (AAS-FEMED 1995) a springboard for the positive effects of education that will help people now-and for generations to come.

Benefits of girls' education are not restricted to the family. The nation also benefits since the basic unit of society is the family. Thus, whatever affects the family as a unit affects the nation as a whole. Education brings increased opportunities for improving earnings, using and preserving resources and increasing the capacity to tackle the challenges posed by poverty and a variety of environmental risks. Education empowers women and thus affects family size and well-being. Higher level of education results in higher aspirations for the family's children. Education gives women more voice and choice and greater earning power, more couples choose to have smaller families and to invest more in the health and education of each child. It is worth emphasizing that on net, as both fertility and child mortality decline, population growth shows substantially, as children's health and well-being improve (Herz & Sperling, 2004; Herz, 2002).

A study of 65 countries with over 93 percent of the population of the developing world found that doubling the proportion of women with a secondary education to 38 percent would reduce average fertility rates from 5.3 to 3.9 children per woman, and the infant mortality rate from 81 to 38 per thousand births (Subbarao & Raney, 1993). Female education is the single most powerful influence on fertility, but, of course when family planning and basic health services are also provided, the effects are stronger. Similarly, the impact of female education on children's health is striking; more so when decent health services and clean water and sanitation are not available.

According to a study in more than 100 countries when women gain four years of education, fertility per woman drops by roughly one birth (Klasen, 1999). A review of many country studies found that each additional year of a mother's schooling cuts the expected infant mortality by an average of 5 to 10 percent. Results vary, but this link is especially striking in low income countries. The pattern has been widely replicated across comparative databases and through repeated censuses (Schultz, 1993). The impact of women's education on children's education varies more by country, but recent multi-country research finds that increasing women's education by one year beyond the average boosts the probability of children's enrolment in schools by 1 to 6 percent. Several other studies reveal that while both fathers' and mothers' education matter, mothers' education matters more (Herz, 2002).

Education increases women's warning capability and knowledge and changes their position in the family and society. In turn, these changes translate into more optional resources for children and for women themselves. Studies from such diverse settings as Bangladesh, Brazil, India and Cote d'Ivoire show women spend more of their incomes and assets they control on their families compared with men, holding constantly the family budget (Schultz 2002). The study from Cote d'Ivoire found raising women's share of cash income in the family boosts the share of the family budget going to food and reduces the share going to school, land and cigarettes, controlling for income and other factors (Hoddinott, 1995). Other research shows that educated women more effectively fund health care for their children. In Africa, half the children of mothers with a

primary education are immunized – compared with about one-third of those whose mothers had no education (Gage et al, 1977).

As university education improves women's position in society and increases their resources, it is reasonable to think it will enhance the impact on family size and well-being, but far more research is needed. It seems reasonable to think children's education will benefit as more mothers gain university education.

Education Empowers Women to Defend Against Violence and HIV/AIDS

A growing body of evidence suggests that women's education at the primary and secondary levels often enables women to stand up more effectively for themselves and their children against threats like HIV/AIDS and domestic violence (Herz & Sperling, 2004). Nobel Laureate Amartya Amartyan found that education in India does help women protect against violence. She concluded that women with no formal education are less likely to resist violence than women with some level of formal education and are more likely to leave an abusive relationship (Sen, 2000).

Studies from Africa find educated women less likely to have been circumcised, and less likely to have circumcised daughters. In Kenya, women who had some secondary education were four times more likely to oppose circumcision in general as well as specifically for their daughters and granddaughters, as compared to women who never completed primary school (ORC Macro International, 1995). In Burkina Faso, 78 percent of girls whose

mothers had not graduated from primary school were circumcised compared with 48 percent of girls whose mothers had some secondary education (World Health Organization, 1998). And in Egypt, mothers' education is associated with less intent to circumcise daughters, lower risks of circumcision and greater use of medical means of circumcision when girls are circumcised.

Teenage girls in Africa today are five times likely as compared to teenage boys, to contract HIV/AIDS, and more likely to be pulled out of school to care for family members. But, according to a review of demographic and health surveys from 32 countries, women with post-primary education are five times more likely than illiterate women to know the basic facts about HIV/AIDS (Vandemoortle & Delamonica, 2000). Rural Ugandans with secondary education are seven times less likely to contract HIV/AIDS; those who finished primary school are half again as likely as those who received little or no education (Walque, 2002). In Kenya 17 year old girls in secondary school are almost three times as likely to be virgins as those who complete only primary school (UNICEF, 2002).

The Place of Women in Basic Education and Health Care Improvement

More female teachers are critical about achieving improvement in education, especially where cultural traditions make it hard or impossible for girls to be taught by men as girls grow up. For cultural and practical reasons, more female health professionals also needed to staff health system (beyond the front lines, which often rely on women or men with little formal education, but where efforts to improve educational levels are underway). In both education and

health, women as well as men are needed at all levels – as principals and managers – because education needs to reach both genders and basic health systems typically focus on mothers and children. Experience shows that social services enhance each of the groups they are intended to benefit when those groups are involved in designing and running the systems.

Educated Women as Role Models

Given that a university education is a pathway to leadership throughout society, women as well as men need such an education. Educated women do not only contribute to the economy and society, but also can become role models and possibly mentors. Especially where few women have moved beyond highly traditional spheres, female role models may be key participants in helping more women break into non-traditional fields and to change social norms involving gender roles. These facts are obvious, for instance, in parts of Africa and South Asia where women have rarely worked outside the home (or home fields) (Herz, 2005). Often the first jobs to open up are in teaching and health care, as governments move to expand education and health service programmes to reach women and girls. The first women to seek these jobs are often young and have extraordinary will to succeed. As they do succeed, social attitudes change – often quite quickly – and it is reasonable to think that they gradually make the way for other women. Women who become leaders may be particularly willing and able to address the needs of the majority of women, though this is by no means assured as these leaders struggle to survive politically (Herz, 2005).

Educating Women for Political Participation and Better Governance

If we accept, as discussed above, that university education is a pathway to leadership, it is also reasonable to postulate that such pathways will take women into governmental offices, which is all to the good of society, because some evidence suggests that where more women participate in parliaments, governance tends to improve. This idea is reiterated by Margaret Thatcher (a former British Prime Minister) who says that: “In politics, if you want anything said, ask a man. If you want anything done, ask a woman” (Jay, 2005: p. 356). Herz (2005) believes, for example, that holding constant incomes and civil liberties, among other things, the greater the proportion of legislators who are women, the less corruption exists in both senior and lower levels of government.

From the literature above it is clear that when a woman’s place is not only confined to the kitchen, but is extended to the classroom, her education ultimately benefits her inputs in the kitchen and the home as well as the entire society.

Community Support for Female Education

Since the beginning of the new educational system in 1987, most communities have been participating in the running of schools. Teachers and pupils who live in the communities are monitored by parents. With community support problems of girls’ education could be reduced. When parents become aware that education is not only for the rich but also for children from poor homes especially girls whose work is needed to support the family income, they are more

likely to support their children. The third world countries, for example Malawi, have now begun giving their girls opportunity to acquire formal education.

In Malawi, where about 85 percent of the population lives in rural areas, and girls help their mothers with domestic tasks such as fetching water, hauling wood, and grinding maize, the government is trying to improve both the quantity and quality of girls' educational system (Vinod, 1996). Furthermore, the government is making serious attempts to improve the condition of girls' education. A mosaic of efforts, all based on ideas well supported by the available literature, has been instituted since 1992. They include the construction of more schools and more housing for teachers, the elimination of direct cost for girls, the provision of more and better educational materials, the gender sensitization of communities in favour of girls' education. New classrooms are being built to meet the needs of additional students. Some community involvement in the construction of schools is taking place although it seems to depend on the initiative of school principals (Vinod, 1996).

Vinod reports that the review of textbooks by gender units found substantial disparities, with more than 300 references to men and only 17 to women. Men were often identified with managerial and other high-status jobs and roles, while women were associated with the home. The textbooks for grade one had already been developed when the gender specialist was appointed, so she produced supplementary materials such as flip charts with illustrations presenting women and girls in non-traditional activities. The textbooks for grade 3 and above might be gender sensitive.

Sensitization of teachers on girl-friendly learning environments is now included in all teacher training exercises. Gender sensitive case study approaches were completed in the first phase of the GABLE project (Vinod, 1996).

The turn of the 20th century saw the beginning of radical female movement to address this theoretical issue of equal access to education for both boys and girls. The Universal Declaration Act of Human Rights of the United Nations (UN) Article 26 declares that “education is a right not a privilege”. Female emancipation drive led to the 1975 International Women’s Year Conference which declared the decade 1976 to 1985 to concentrate on women all over the world. The world plan for Action for the implementation of the objectives of International Women’s Year (Mexico, 1975) proposed that female and non-formal educational programmes should be launched to make the general public, parents, teachers, counsellors and all concerned to provide girls with initial education and adequate training for occupational lines.

In Malawi, an educational campaign emphasizing person to person and small group communication and involving extension and rural workers is expected to enable communities to find solutions to problems of girls’ education. Each community development assistant is responsible for initiating and supervising community-based activities in ten to twenty villages (Vinod, 1996).

Borrowing techniques of popular theatre first developed in Latin America, the Theatre for Development troupe involves students of drama in the production of plays that have relevance for rural Malawian communities. Drama and music students spend several days in communities as participant observers -hauling

water, tending field, paying respect at funerals, or witnessing initiation ceremonies. They talk informally with community residents to learn about their fears, aspirations, and frustrations regarding girls' education. Throughout their residence in the community, the students discuss the findings with one another and identify storylines that can be turned into plays.

In Bangladesh, to increase girls' enrolment the community donates land for the schools and gives the government about \$250 for maintenance of the school. Teachers' ratios are maintained at 60 percent women and 40 percent men. The best known of the NGO models is the programme of the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC). Even before the government's current experiment, BRAC had been providing non-formal primary education programmes for children between the ages of eight and fourteen. These BRAC – run primary schools aim at a school register of at least 75% increase. Many of the girls in the BRAC – run schools either never went to school or dropped out in grade 1. One school room is opened for every thirty-three students, giving preference to girls. The community and local landowners help to choose the school site and build the classroom, usually a bamboo or mud-walled construction with thatched or tin roof. About 80 percent of BRAC teachers are women (Vinod, 1996).

Each school is run by a management committee comprising three parents, a community leader, and the teacher. BRAC has been examining gender issues in both its organization and its curriculum. To support the promotion of women within the BRAC structure, the NGO created a Gender Resource Centre in 1994,

providing opportunities for women to reach administrative positions by allowing teachers to become programme assistants. Throughout rural Bangladesh today, women can be seen driving scooters and bicycles.

Globally, there has been a positive response to enhancing the empowerment of women through education. Thus, the government of Ghana has demonstrated its commitment to girls' education by creating a high-level post, the Ministry for Women and Children's Affairs, and Girls Education Units at the regional, district and school levels (GES, 2001). In the fCUBE programme, the Ministry of Education planned that by the year 2005, there should be an increase in enrolment of girls in Basic Education. That is, the number of girls should be equal to the number of boys. The Ministry's plan was to reduce the dropout rate of girls in the primary from 30 to 20% and of those in the JSS, from 21 to 15%. It was also to increase the transition rate of girls from JSS to SSS by 10% as well as expose ten thousand girls from basic schools and senior secondary schools to the STME clinics. The Ministry, further, hoped to encourage girls so that at least 30 – 35% of them would choose science courses as elective subjects at the senior secondary school level (GES, 2001).

Moreover, access course for women entering Training Colleges was started in 2002 / 2003 academic year to increase female in-take in Training Colleges. For instance female enrolment in Teacher Training Colleges was 3,400 in 2001/2002 academic year (Teacher Education Division of GES, 2003). However, the enrolment figure for the Teacher Training Colleges in 2006 was 3174, which indicates some reduction in female enrolment as compared to the

figure in 2001/2002 academic year (Institute of Education, 2007). This calls for more action.

Furthermore, the Alliance for Community Action on Female Education supports non-governmental efforts that expand girls' and women's opportunities for equitable education, thus strengthening the country's system of education through diversified approaches. The alliance programme in Ghana was initiated in October, 1997 and took off in May, 1998. It is being hosted by FAWE Ghana chapter and has a nine member National Steering Committee and the secretariat of the Alliance is based in FAWE Ghana chapter offices (FAWE, 2000).

The operations of the Alliance in Ghana follow the broad objectives of the Alliance which seeks to engage civil society to contribute to improved and diversified educational systems by ensuring that girls are able to gain access to, persist in and achieve quality basic education. This is being done through the channelling of resources to support and strengthen our educational systems. NGOs/CBOs' activities relate directly to basic education by providing small grants, technical and managerial support and creating opportunities for collaboration and information exchange. The grant support ranged between US\$2,000 and US\$20,000.

Specifically, the programme in Ghana supports education-related NGOs/CBOs that:

- provide educational facilities for girls at the basic level.
- undertake advocacy programmes at district, community and grass-root levels in support of quality Basic Education for girls.

- provide financial incentives and other support for needy girls at the basic level.
- conduct research on priority areas relating to education of girls and
- provide relevant interventions aimed at supporting higher enrolments, persistence and achievement of girls at the basic education level (FAWE, 2000).

The Girls' Education Unit is very fortunate to have the financial, technical and logistical support from many sources. The World Bank, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), UNICEF, the World University Service of Canada (WUSC), the Department for International Development (DFID), USAID, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), the British Council, and the District Assemblies have all in one way or the other contributed to the Unit's success (GEU, 2005). The awareness creation for girl-child education will be successful only if those with the idealism to promote this awareness have the means to do so.

The Child School Community Process in Education (CHILDSCOPE) programme, also initiated by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) in the country, provides a lot of support for girl-child education. For instance, in 2001, CHILDSCOPE presented 902 bicycles and tricycles valued at ₵700m to girls in the Tolon-Kumbungu District of the Northern Region to help increase the enrolment and retention of girls in schools whilst UNICEF also provided scholarships to the tune of more than ₵60m to 174 girls in the area (Adedze, 2005).

Many Ghanaians have joined the campaign to promote girl-child education over the years. The Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), under the Vice-Chancellorship of Professor Kwasi Andam increased the female enrolment in the University to about 40 percent in the year 2004. Professor Andam made this known at the Matriculation ceremony of the KNUST (Oteng, 2005).

Moreover, information and education campaigns are being adopted to sensitize parents on the importance of girl-child education and encourage them to invest in girls as they do in boys. The Female Education in Mathematics and Science in Africa (FEMSA) project carried out research into girls' education in Science, Mathematics and Technology (SMT) education during its phase 1 activities. FEMSA is currently taking the results of this research and preparing to implement small-scale interventions in the schools which served as the research sites (FAWE, 1998).

FEMSA began its phase 1 activities with a two-year pilot phase focused on compiling country profiles of four countries: Cameroon, Ghana, Tanzania and Uganda and the setting up of a donor's consortium to provide funds for project activities. In each country a National Team, organized and directed by a National Coordinator, carried out the project activities. FEMAS's phase 1 activities took a critical look at the state of girls' education in Mathematics and Science at the JSS and SSS levels. The activities focused on data gathering from a cross-section of schools throughout the country (FAWE, 1998).

Moreover there is award of scholarships to needy but brilliant girls in deprived and remote areas of Ghana. Female teachers contribute 36% of the total teaching force in urban areas. Currently, most of them have been posted to deprived and remote areas. To motivate them incentive packages are given to them (Girls Education Unit (GEU), 2002).

Summary of Chapter Two

The literature reviewed so far has proved that gender disparities exist at almost all levels of education and work places. Also, socio-cultural and economic factors have affected, to a larger extent, female education both in Ghana and elsewhere in Africa. The perception of many people is that the place of the female child is the kitchen, so the important thing is for her to marry. Such people think, therefore, that sending the female child to school is a waste of financial resources, and so although many governments and various stakeholders are assisting in helping and encouraging female-child education, some people do not consider it prudent.

The literature shows that community support has become important in the delivery of education. For instance, in countries such as Malawi, Bangladesh and Ghana, communities are being urged to support educational delivery, especially for the girl-child. Again, the socio-cultural and socio-economic background, parental attitude, and parent's perception influence the education of the girl-child. It is therefore important for people to discard the above-mentioned perception.

It has been observed from the review that there is a substantial disparity in the educational delivery of most of the Africa countries. The literature has also shown the importance of female-child education. Now a lot of policies have been put in place by various governments, NGOs, GES, district assemblies, religious bodies and many others to improve girls' education. In spite of all the policies put in place to support girls' education, boys still outnumber girls especially at the senior secondary schools and tertiary levels; so it is important to find out the factors responsible for this phenomenon and find out how communities can help solve the problem.

Since this study is about community support, the issues raised in the literature review are significant as the extent of community support for female education in the Dormaa Municipal area enabled me to explain whether such issues still remain in some parts of Ghana, and if they do, to what extent. The study offered significant insight into how the communities in question still perceive female education. This is because the kind of support offered by a particular community normally indicates how that community sees female education.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research design employed by the researcher, the study population, sample and sampling procedure, research instruments, and data collection procedure. It also presents the pilot-testing of the instruments and the method of data analysis.

Research Design

The descriptive survey design was employed for the study since the study was concerned with the description of some existing phenomenon towards girls' education. The study also involved a systematic collection of data on people's general perception about sending girls to school. Thus, it was better to use the descriptive survey. According to McWilliam (1996) non-experimental research essentially describes existing phenomena without changing some conditions to affect subjects. Sarantakos (1997) sees the descriptive research as a preliminary study of an area which deals with an independent investigation into a phenomenon with the aim of describing social systems, relations or social events. Neuman (2003) seems to share the same idea when he states that the descriptive research presents a picture of the specific details of a situation, social setting or relation; dealing with the interpretation of the relationship among variables and

describing their relationship. It, thus, seeks to find answers to questions through the analysis of relationships between and among variables.

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), the advantage of the descriptive survey is that it has the potential to provide a lot of information obtained from the sample. Again, the descriptive survey involves answering questions that concern the current state of the subject of study or collecting data in order to test hypothesis (Gay, 1992). The design has an advantage of producing good amount of results from a wide range of people. At the same time, it provides a more accurate picture of events at a point in time.

Seifeit and Hoffnung (1994), however, think that there is the difficulty of ensuring that the questions to be answered are clear using the descriptive design and not misleading because survey results can vary significantly depending on the exact wording of questions. It may also produce untrustworthy results because they delve into private matters that people may not be completely truthful about. They further state that questionnaires require subjects who can articulate their thoughts well and sometimes even put such thoughts into writing.

In order to overcome the issues raised by Seifeit and Hoffnung (1994), this researcher made sure the questions were clear enough so as not to mislead the respondents. Thus, the design was pre-tested to ensure that the questions were clear enough. The data collected from the pre-test was analysed and measured using the Cronbach's Alpha co-efficient to test for reliability of the information gathered (see section on Pre-Testing of Instrument).

Study Population

The study population consisted of communities in the Dormaa Municipality. The Dormaa Municipal area has nine communities made up of two urban, two peri-urban and five rural communities. The communities were represented by parents, opinion leaders in the communities, the Municipal Director of Education, female children and headteachers of basic schools. These people were the sources of data.

Sample

The sample for the study consisted of one urban community, two peri-urban and two rural communities. According to the Ghana Statistical Service (2002), the rural and urban classification of localities is population based, on a population size of 5000 or more being urban and less than 5000 being rural. It is perhaps important to mention also that there are other factors that are normally considered in the classification of localities into urban and rural. These include: population density and the type of economic activity undertaken by a particular locality. Density is considered in terms of the number of people per square kilometre. Thus, the higher the number of people per square kilometre, the more urban it is; and the lower the number of people, the more rural a locality is. In terms of economic activity, what is normally considered is the number of people engaged in the three main areas of production, namely: primary (production of raw material), secondary (processing of raw material into other goods), and tertiary (provision of services). In this case, the higher the number of people

engaged in the tertiary and secondary production, the more urban the area is; whilst the higher the number of people engaged in primary production, the more rural the locality is.

In this study, the size of the population and type of economic activity as indicated above were considered other than the population density. This is because the peri-urban communities shared similar characteristics in terms of the criteria explained above. The rural communities also shared similar characteristics, as explained.

Sampling Procedure

The sample for the study consisted of one urban, two peri-urban and two rural communities. The stratification of the communities into urban, peri-urban and rural communities was based on the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) (2002) classification of communities. The Dormaa Ahenkro urban community was purposively chosen because it was the administrative seat of the Dormaa Municipality. The two peri-urban communities were also chosen whilst two rural communities were randomly selected.

Quota sampling was also used to ensure proportional representation of men and women so that both sexes expressed their views and to show that women were equally responsible for the education of the girl-child. Details of the sample distribution are provided in Table 2 on page 51.

The sample in each community was represented by men and women who included chiefs, queen mothers, elders, women leaders, religious leaders, school management committee members and other residents. All these people were selected through the purposive sampling technique - a technique in which the researcher selects respondents who can answer his/her research questions. In purposive sampling, the researcher uses his/her previous knowledge of the population as well as the purpose of the research to select the sample that is representative of the community under study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000; Twumasi, 1986).

To this end, the views of five chiefs and five queen mothers were sought. The District Director of Education, the Coordinator of the Girl-Child Education Unit, the Member of Parliament for the area as well as the Municipal Chief Executive and the Coordinator were involved. The researcher also sought the views of 20 headteachers, nine assembly members. Again, 20 parent teacher association and school management committee chairpersons were consulted. Furthermore, 20 senior girl prefects were selected from the twenty schools which were the focus of attention, and 40 teachers (2 from each school) were considered. Lastly, 10 religious leaders representing ten different religious bodies were equally considered. This choice was based on the fact that different religious groups had different educational policies. Table 2 shows the composition of the sample.

Table 2
Composition of Respondents by Community

Respondents	Community					Total
	D/A	Pm	Ad	At	As	
Chiefs & Queen mothers	2	2	2	2	2	10
Assembly Persons	4	2	2	-	1	9
Religious Leaders	2	2	2	2	2	10
PTA & SMC	11	2	1	4	2	20
Chairpersons						
Headteachers	9	2	3	2	4	20
Teachers	10	8	8	7	7	40
Municipal Education						
Director	1	-	-	-	-	1
Girl-Child Education						
Unit Co-ordinator	-	-	1	-	-	1
Member of Parliament	-	-	-	-	1	1
Municipal Chief						
Executive and the – coordinator	1	1	-	-	-	2
Senior Girl Prefects	8	3	3	3	3	20
Total	48	22	22	20	22	134

Key: D/A, Dormaa Ahenkro; Pm, Pamuagya; Ad, Adomasa; At, Atesikrom; As, Asunsu.

These people were chosen because of their direct impact on education and educational policies on child education. For example, after the government has made policies on education, their implementation is in the hands of such stakeholders as Directors of Education, Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs), Heads of Schools, Teachers, Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs) and School Management Committees. Even in some cases, Assemblies make their own by-laws and policies to improve educational standards. Therefore, a study that seeks to find out community support for education in an area cannot overlook the opinions of these stakeholders. There was also the need to involve religious leaders because since colonial times, religious bodies have been major stakeholders in the provision of education in Ghana (Sackey, 1997). Currently, chiefs and queen mothers have also realised the need to assist in the educational development process. A numbers of chiefs, for example, the Asantehene, Otumfo Osei Tutu II and the Dormaahene, Nana Agyemang Badu II, have set up educational endowment funds to help brilliant but needy children in their respective traditional areas. After various stakeholders have put policies and actions in place, if parents are not willing to support their own children, all such policies and actions will be a mirage, and so seeking information from parents in a study like this one is in order.

Research Instruments

The researcher used both interviews and questionnaire to collect data. The girl prefects were interviewed with the help of a self-designed interview guide to

gather in-depth and comprehensive information from them while questionnaire was used to collect data from all the other respondents. The interviews were conducted in English except for the few who could not speak English. The responses of those that were conducted in Twi were translated into English. The interviews were done on one-to-one basis. On the average, the researcher planned to spend twenty-five minutes on each interviewee. In all twenty girl prefects were interviewed.

Items for the questionnaire were both open-ended and closed ended types. The questions were divided into four parts (See Appendix A). The first part consisted of questions that solicited information on the biographical characteristics of the respondents. The second part was meant to find out the general attitude of the respondents towards girls' education whilst the third part was meant to find out the kind of support the community provided towards girl-child education. The fourth part also solicited information on problems faced by community members in their attempt to support girls' and boys' educational needs to improve upon community support for girl-child education.

This research was based on the assumption that female education had not been offered adequate support in the Dormaa Municipality. In order to check the accuracy of this perception, therefore, interviews were considered very significant. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000, p. 509), "Interviewing ... is an important way for a researcher to check the accuracy of – to verify or refute – the impressions he or she has gained through observation". It is an important way

of finding out what is on people's mind, what they think or feel about something. Thus, since the study aimed at finding out the Dormaa Municipal community's perception about and support for female education, it was not out of place to employ interview together with questionnaire to gather the needed information. In this respect, structured interview was employed. This is the type of interview which consists of a series of questions designed to elicit specific answers on the part of respondents (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000).

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

The researcher pre-tested the instruments to ensure validity and reliability. The questionnaire and interview guides for the study were designed by the researcher with the help of her supervisors. They were tried out on twenty-five (25) adults who were selected randomly from Berekum (Urban), Kato (Peri-Urban) and Gyaamedede (Rural) communities.

In order to ascertain the reliability of the instrument employed in collecting the data, the researcher measured the individual items by computing the Cronbach's Alpha co-efficient which indicated the degree of item – to total correlation. The co-efficient alpha is a measure of internal consistency that involves computing the averages of all possible split-half co-efficients resulting from the splitting of the scale items. It varies from 0 to 1 (Sarantakos, 1997). This criterion helps in deciding whether an item should be deleted from the list or whether elimination improves the corresponding alpha values. The following were the Cronbach's Alpha values obtained: .49 for items on attitudes towards

girl child education; .55 for items on support provided towards both girl child and boy child education; .36 for items on support provided to keep the girl-child in school; and .69 for items on support from community for boys and girls.

After analyzing the data, it was observed that there were some anomalies in the arrangement of the items in the questionnaire. For example, it was observed that item 19 was supposed to follow item 16 whilst 20 was to follow 17. Also, it was observed that the Cronbach's Alpha values of .36 and .49 were lower due to how question 15 was framed. Thus, question 15 had to be rewritten in a positive statement form, that is, it had to be changed from "I do not want my girl child to have long period of schooling because that will affect the number of children she will have" to "I want my girl child to have long period of schooling as I will help my boy".

The items were then re-tested and the results showed a Cronbach's Alpha value of .68. Thus, result of the reliability analysis suggested that the instruments were internally consistent and that they would help to measure the constructs assigned.

Data Collection Procedure

The data were collected personally by the researcher. A letter of introduction was collected from the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA). The letter sought to introduce the researcher to the respondents and established the authenticity and legitimacy of the study. The researcher explained all the items of the instruments (questionnaire and interviews) to the respondents. To ensure adequate return of the questionnaire, a

number of follow-ups were made. The data collection was done on the days on which the people of the various communities did not go to farm. This enabled the researcher to get access to all the respondents in the various communities. In the case of directors and the headteachers the researcher booked appointments with them at their own convenience.

In conducting the interviews, the researcher made sure that rules and ethics of engagement were strictly followed. For instance, ethically, one is not supposed to record or gather information from a person without seeking the consent of that person. Thus, it was ethically prudent to seek the consent of the interviewees and let them know the purpose of the exercise. The researcher, therefore, explained to them that the exercise was purely for academic purposes. This ensured that the interviewees freely and openly shared their views on the various issues raised and discussed during the interaction without fear. Also, in order not to impinge on the interviewees' time and freedom, the researcher booked appointments with them at their own convenience.

Method of Data Analysis

The data obtained from the closed-ended questionnaire were analysed using the computer soft-ware Scientific Product for Service Solutions (SPSS). It was used to analyse the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents by finding frequencies and percentages. Data obtained from the open-ended questionnaire were sorted out and grouped into identifiable themes. They were then re-coded according to the themes so identified and analysed using SPSS.

However, the data obtained from the interviews were reported after putting the various responses into themes.

The statistical analyses that were employed to find answers to the research questions included the following. The Likert Scale of 1 to 5, where 1 represented strongly agree and 5 represented neither agree nor disagree, was used to find mean responses to answer research question one. To answer research question two, responses relating to respondents' roles in supporting girl-child education were analysed using cross tabulations, means and ratios. Also, frequencies and percentages were used to analyse respondents' opinions on various modes of support for girl-child education to answer research question three. With regard to research question four, cross-tabulations and percentages were used to analyse the identifiable problems inhibiting community support for girl-child education. Similarly, in order to answer research question five, cross-tabulations and percentages were used to assess various modes of community support for girl-child education.

Summary

This chapter described and justified the methodology adopted for the study. It has stated the research design and the approach to data analysis. The study employed the descriptive research design which aims at the description of an existing phenomenon. Also, the study population as well as sample and sampling procedure were described. The research instruments (questionnaire and

interview) and the methods of data collection and analysis have also been discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to find the kinds of support provided by the Dormaa Municipal area towards girl-child education; the problems that inhibit and the way forward for girl-child education in the Dormaa community. A questionnaire was used to collect information from five communities (Dormaa Ahenkro, Pamuagya, Adomasa, Atesikrom and Asunsu) represented by: chiefs and queen mothers, assembly persons, parent-teacher association and school management committee chairmen, religious leaders, head teachers and teachers, the District Director of Education and the Girl-Child Education Unit Co-ordinator, the Member of Parliament for the Dormaa Municipality as well as the Municipal Chief Executive and the Co-ordinator. In addition, 20 senior girl prefects were interviewed. The total sample size was 134; out of which 114 were supposed to fill in the questionnaire and 20 were interviewed. Of the 134, 48 were chosen from Dormaa Ahenkro, 22 from Pamuagya, 22 from Adomasa, 20 from Atesikrom and 22 were selected from Asunsu.

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Communities

This section describes the socio-demographic characteristics of the

respondents. People’s socio-demographic characteristics have been found to influence their perceptions of things around them. Ritchie and Goeldner (1994) state that the information residents give represents their non-technical advice designed to provide direction concerning the nature and type of development that the community wishes to support. The socio-demographic variables covered included age, sex, occupation, level of education, number of children as well as the number of boys and girls in school.

Sex Distribution

Sex is one variable that influences, to a greater extent, people’s attitude towards the world around them and the kind of development they want to see, including education. As expected, 114 respondents filled in the questionnaire. The following table represents the community distribution of the respondents.

Table 3
Distribution of Respondents by Sex and Community

Sex	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No	%	No.	%	No	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Male	26	65.0	18	94.7	14	70.0	9	56.3	12	63.2	79	69.3
Female	14	35.0	1	5.3	6	30.0	7	43.7	7	36.8	35	30.7
Total	40	100	19	100	20	100	16	100	19	100	114	100

Table 3 indicates that of the 114 respondents, 40 came from Dormaa Ahenkro. 26 (65.5%) of these were males whilst 14 (35%) were females. Nineteen of the respondents came from Pamuagya out of which 18 (94.7%) were males and one (5.3%) was a female. Also, 20 of the respondents came from Adomasa. 14 (70%) of this number were males and 6 (30%) were females. Whilst 16 of them were residents of Atesikrom, out of which were nine (56.3%) and seven (43.7%) females, 19 were residents of Asunsu who were made up of 12 (63.2%) males and seven (36.8) females.

Out of the 114 respondents, 79 were males representing 69.3% whilst 35 (30.7%) were females. It is clear then that the male respondents outnumbered the females by 38.6%. This suggests that in the Ghanaian work places, males always outnumber females. In other words, gender inequalities and inequities abound in the various Ghanaian work places and institutions, that is, there is high incidence of gender discrimination against women. This also points to the fact that there were more male children than female children in school (Duodu, 2005). For instance, in a discussion paper prepared for an African Union Experts' Meeting held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, in June 2008, it was observed that the shortage of proper qualification of teachers in Sub-Saharan Africa was exacerbated by the gender imbalance in the teaching force. The same paper reported that research had shown that women teachers did have a very significant influence in the education

of girls, as they would be role models to look up to, thereby helping increase the enrolment of girls in schools.

Age Distribution

It is generally believed that age has a significant influence on how people view things around them; the value people attach to things, items, goods and resources has been found to vary with age (Amuquandoh, 2007; Frempong, 2008).

The ages of the respondents generally ranged between 21 years and 61 years (and above). Eleven respondents had ages between 21 and 30 years. This represented 9.6% of the respondents. While 20 were aged between 31 and 40 years representing 17.5%. Also, 36 were between the ages of 41 and 50 and represented 31.6% whilst those between 51 and 60 years were 40, representing 35.1%. Seven respondents were 61 years and above. They represented 6.1% of the total number of respondents.

The age distribution of the respondents by community is presented in Table 4.

Table 4**Distribution of Respondents by Age and Community**

Age	Community					Total
	D/Ahenkro	Pamuagya	Adomasa	Atesikrom	Asunsu	
	N= 40 %	N= 19 %	N= 20 %	N= 16 %	N= 19 %	
21-30	5.0	10.5	20.0	6.0	10.5	9.6
31-40	25.0	10.5	10.0	13.0	21.1	17.5
41-50	25.0	42.1	40.0	25.0	31.6	31.6
51-60	42.5	31.6	20.0	50.0	26.3	35.1
61- above	2.5	5.3	10.0	6.0	10.5	6.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 4 shows that in terms of chronological age, the respondents were mature people. The total figures indicate that the majority of them were between the ages of 51 and 60 years followed by those between 41 and 50 years and then those between 31 and 40 years. It is important to note that, whilst in the Dormaa Ahenkro and the Atesikrom communities, the majority (42.1% and 50% respectively) were in the 51-60 age group, for each of Pamuagya, Adomasa and Asunsu, the majority fell within the age bracket of 41-50. The figures were 42.1%, 40% and 31% for the three communities respectively. This, however, may not show a clear difference between the attitudes of the respondents towards

education since there is not much difference between those in the 51-60 and 41-50 age groups. All the respondents were adults who had had some experiences in life to be able to determine whether education could play a key role in one's personal and/or societal development. Thus, the responses/information gathered from them might have emanated from their personal experiences. This suggests that the information provided in response to the various questions could be considered as authentic.

Occupational Distribution

The total figures indicate that, in terms of occupation, 60.5% of the respondents were teachers, headteachers and educationists. In other words, they were directly involved in teaching or educational administration or planning. Also, 10.5 of the respondents were religious leaders. Six self-employed respondents representing 5.3% were involved whilst 14 were farmers and represented 12.3%. Two each of banking and health workers, representing 1.8% each, were included. All other workers were nine and represented 7.9% of the total sample which filled the questionnaire (see Table 5).

Table 5
Distribution of Respondents by Occupation and Community

Occupation	Community					Total
	D/Ahenkro	Pamuagya	Adomasa	Atesikrom	Asunsu	
	N= 40	N= 19	N= 20	N= 16	N= 19	N=114
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Teaching						
/Educ.	55.0	63.2	60.0	63.5	68.4	60.5
Rel.						
Leaders	7.5	15.8	10.0	12.5	10.5	10.5
Self-						
Employed	12.5	–	–	6.3	–	5.3
Farming	10.0	5.3	15.0	18.8	15.8	12.3
Banking	2.5	–	5.0	–	–	1.8
Health	2.5	–	5.0	–	–	1.8
Others	10.0	15.8	5.0	–	5.3	7.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 5 indicates that the majority of the respondents were directly involved in educational issues and policy implementation. Significantly, the individual community distribution followed the same pattern. However, whilst in

the Dormaa Ahenkro community the second highest group was the self-employed (12.5%), in the Pamuagya community, the second highest group was the religious group (15.8%). Also, in the Adomasa, Atesikrom and Asunsu communities, the second highest group was farmers. They had three farmers each, representing 15%, 18.8% and 15.8% respectively. This is not surprising since these communities are predominantly farming communities.

It is interesting to note that there were no banking and health workers in the Pamuagya, Atesikrom and Asunsu communities. This is unfortunate since it does not offer children the opportunity to have mentors and role models in such areas of study to motivate them to go to school.

The pattern or distribution of occupation indicated in the table shows that the majority of the respondents had had formal education (as supported by the statistics provided in Table 6 below). For instance it takes a higher level of education to be able to become a teacher, an educationist, a health worker, a banker or a religious leader. This also suggests that they would have positive attitudes towards education in general. They would also have a fair idea about the kind of support the people of the Dormaa Municipality gave to education. Again, with the majority being teachers or educationists, they would have sufficient knowledge of how educational development can be improved in the Municipality.

Educational Qualification

Another variable that has been identified to have a significant influence on

people's perception about things around them is education; it shapes how people view things, objects, projects and systems (Amuquandoh & Brown, 2008; Frempong, 2008).

Of the total number of 114 respondents, 6.1% were basic education certificate holders. About 11% had secondary education whilst about 38% had teachers certificate and those who had tertiary education were 36%. Finally, 9.6% of them had other qualifications other than those stated above. Table 6 illustrates the various qualifications by community.

Table 6
Distribution of Respondents by Educational Qualification and Community

Educational Qualification	Community					Total
	D/A	Pam	Adm	Atk	Asn	
	N=40	N=19	N=20	N=16	N=19	N=114
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Basic Education	7.5	5.3	5.0	6.3	5.3	6.1
Sec. Education	7.5	26.3	10.0	-	10.5	10.5
Teacher Educ.	35.0	21.1	45.0	56.3	36.8	37.7
Tertiary Educ.	42.5	42.1	25.0	37.5	26.3	36.0
Other	7.5	5.3	15.0	-	21.1	9.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Key: D/A, Dormaa Ahenkro; Pam, Pamuagya; Adm, Adomasa; Atk, Atesikrom;

Asn, Asunsu.

From Table 6, it can be seen that more than 90% of the respondents had had one or another form of formal education. Thus, it could be said that the respondents had positive attitude towards formal education. It is, therefore, not surprising that the majority (also more than 90%) of the respondents did agree that girls' education was as important as that of boys. It has been observed that the level of parents' educational levels have a significant influence on children's education (Mensah, 2001). In other words, the higher the educational level of parents, the more they want their children (both boys and girls) to aspire to achieve higher formal education.

Although the majority of the total number of respondents had had teacher education, in both the Dormaa Ahenkro and Pamuagya communities, the majority had had tertiary education. These two communities are urban and peri-urban communities respectively. This is important as it goes to prove or support the fact that higher education has normally favoured urban dwellers, and or that those in urban communities have a better orientation towards education than the rural dwellers.

Average Number of Children

The number of children in a specific family may have a significant influence on the financial strength of the family where income levels are the same. The lower the number of children being looked after by a family, the higher the financial strength of the family and vice versa. On the average, the Dormaa

Ahenkro community had three children, Pamuagya four, Adomasa three, Atesikrom four, Asunsu three. Thus, on the average, we can say that the various communities had ideal family sizes because the ideal family size in Ghana, which can be managed by a working family, is 3.5 (Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2000). Thus, we can say that the communities could be in better positions to cater for their children.

Number of Children, Ratio of Girls to Boys, and Number of Children in School by Community

From the data, a total of 574 children was obtained. Out of the total, 187 of them came from Dormaa Ahenkro, 98 from Pamuagya, 85 from Adomasa, 122 from Atesikrom and 82 came from Asunsu (see Table 7). These figures were obtained by adding the total number of children per respondent.

Of the 187 children from Dormaa Ahenkro, 92 were girls whilst 95 were boys. Out of the 92 girls, 64 (representing 69.57%) were in school whilst out of the 95 boys, 64 (representing 68.09%) were in school. In all, 128 (representing 68.45%) out of the 187 children from Dormaa Ahenkro were in school. From these figures, we can say that the number of girls who were in school was more than the number of boys in school by about 1.04%.

Also, out of the 98 children from Pamuagya, 50 of them were girls whilst 48 of them were boys. Of the 50 girls, 27 of them (representing 54%) were in school whilst out of the 48 boys, 40 of them (representing 83.33%) were in school. The total number of children who were in school was 67, representing 68.37%. Generally, we can say that in the Pamuagya community, the number of boys in school outran the number of girls in School by about 29.33%. This is quite a discouraging number.

Again, the data indicated that Adomasa had 85 children, out of whom 69 (representing 81.18%) were in school. Out of the 85, 40 were girls whilst 45 were boys. Of the 40 girls, 35 (representing 87.5%) were attending school whilst 34 of the boys (who represented 75.6%) were also attending school. Over here too, it appeared to be encouraging that a higher number of girls were in school.

In the Atesikrom community, there were 122 children out of whom were 61 each of girls and boys. Of the 61 girls, 25 (representing 40.98%) were in school whilst 27 (representing 44.26%) of the boys were in school. In this community, the number of boys in school was more than that of girls by about 3.28%. The total number of children in school was 52, which represented 42.62%. This was quite discouraging as about 57.48% of children were out of school.

Table 7**Number of Children, Ratio of Number of Girls to Boys, and Number of Children in School by Community**

Community	No. of Children	Ratio of Girls to Boys Girls : Boys	No. of Girls & Boys in School Girls : Boys	No. of Children in School
D/Ahenkro	187	92:95	64:64	128
Pamuagya	98	50:48	27:40	67
Adomasa	85	40:45	35:34	69
Atesikrom	122	61:61	25:27	52
Asunsu	82	40:42	23:28	51
Total	574	283:291	174:193	367

Finally, 82 children came from the Asunsu community. Out of the 82, 40 were girls whilst 42 were boys. Of the 40 girls, 23 (representing 57.5%) were in school whilst 28 of the 42 boys (representing 66.67%) were in school. The total number of children in school were 51 (which represented 62.10%). Over here too, the number of boys in school was more than that of the girls by about 9.17%.

Some observations from Table 7 above are worth noting. Of the five communities, it was in the Dormaa Ahenkro and Adomasa communities that the number of girls in school was more than the number of boys in school. This could be attributed to the fact that the two communities were urban and per-urban respectively. Dormaa Ahenkro, which is the urban community, had the closest

ratio of the number of girls in school to the number of boys in school. The percentage difference was just 1.04%. Adomasa, also, had about 11.9% more girls than boys in school. In this case, however, it is difficult to attribute the difference to the community's being peri-urban. This is because in the Pamuagya community, which is also peri-urban, we had more boys than girls in school by about 29.33%. The figures from the Pamuagya community were quite discouraging since we expected a better result than what we had. In the two rural communities, Atesikrom and Asunsu, although the number of boys in school was more than that of girls in school, the percentage differences were not that large: These were 3.28% and 9.17% respectively.

Dormaa Municipal Community Perception of Girl-Child Education

One major question explored in the study was how the Dormaa Municipal Community perceived girl-child education. In exploring this research question, respondents were asked to express their opinions on the following: (i) Intended highest level of education for children; (ii) Reasons for wishing high levels of education for children; (iii) Girls' education is as important as that of boys; (iv) Girls' education is a good investment; (v) Girls' education deprives family of financial resources; and (vi) Male and female children should be allowed the same period of education.

Percentage of Respondents with Preferred Levels of

Education for Boys and Girls

According to the responses gathered, 92.98% of the respondents intended to have their girls acquire a university (or tertiary) education of this percentage, 4.39% of them wished to have the girls acquire postgraduate education whilst only 0.88% thought secondary education was enough for a girl-child. Also 1.75% respondents wished for other forms of education as indicated in Table 8. On the other hand, 87.72% wished their boys obtained a university (or tertiary) education. Again 9.65% of them indicated that they wanted their boys to obtain postgraduate education. Moreover, 0.88% thought secondary education was enough for the boy-child whilst 1.75% thought of other forms of education (e.g. teacher training college) (see Table 8)

From Table 8, there appears to be a general consensus that all children should be able or allowed to obtain university education. This cuts across all the communities concerned. In terms of boys' and girls' education, except for Pamuagya where the response was 50-50 for both sexes, the respondents favoured girls' education more than boys' education. In other words those who favoured female education were more than those who favoured male education. However, this contradicts the real situation on the ground where, in the various universities and other tertiary institutions in Ghana, the male students always outnumber the

females. According to Kwapong (2007) “In 2005/2006 academic year the male to female enrolment ratio was 65:35 for the universities and 70:30 for the polytechnics” which was far below the national norm of 50% male and 50% female (NCTE, 2006). For instance, according to Tete-Mensah (2006) as at 2006, females constituted 33% of the total number of students in the University of Cape Coast; in the same year, the total number of female students in the University of Ghana was 39.44%, whilst in the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, the female students were 28%, and in the University of Education, Winneba, the female students constituted 36% of the total student population.

These statistics raise some questions of concern. Is it the females themselves who are not interested in education? Is it some social factors that militate against female education in the Dormaa Municipality in particular or Ghana as a whole? Or is it a matter of reality and practice as against idealism and wish on the part of the respondents? Or were the respondents influenced by the fact that the researcher was a female, and as such wanted to satisfy her with such responses?

Table 8**Percentage of Respondents with Preferred Levels of Education for Boys and Girls**

Preferred Levels	Community											
	D/A		Pam		Adm		Atk		Asn		Total	
	N=40		N=19		N=20		N=16		N=19		N=114	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
SHS	-	-	-	-	5.0	5.0	-	-	-	-	0.88	0.88
University/Tertiary	92.5	97.5	100	100	75.0	85.0	4.9	81.2	89.5	94.7	87.72	92.98
Postgraduate	7.5	2.5	-	-	15.0	5.0	18.8	12.5	10.5	5.3	9.65	4.39
Other	-	-	-	-	5.0	5.0	6.3	6.3	-	-	1.75	1.75
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Key: D/A, Dormaa Ahenkro; Pam, Pamuagya; Adm, Adomasa; Atk, Atesikrom; Asn, Asunsu

Reasons for Wishing High Levels of Education for Children

The respondents indicated various reasons for wishing higher education for their children. They stated such reasons as: Education is the key to success; education helps children to become responsible citizens to develop a nation; it helps them to get good jobs; and for reasons of gender equity and others. About 7.0% of the respondents thought of education as the key to success; 25.4% considered responsible citizenship as their reason, whilst 51.8% thought of good job/employment opportunities. Those who considered gender equity as their reason were 4.4%, and 8.8% gave other reasons. Three respondents 2.6% did not respond to this question (see Table 9).

From Table 9, it can be observed that most of the respondents considered good job/employment opportunities as the major reason for wishing high levels of education for their children. This cuts across the five communities under reference, as represented on the table.

The issue of good job/employment opportunities seems to reflect the major reason most people aspire to acquire higher education. This is because good job/employment opportunities lead to success. In other words, what most people consider to be success is the acquisition of good jobs that make them wealthy so that they can cater for their needs and those of their families. This can also lead to making people responsible citizens (although wealth does necessarily make one a responsible citizen).

Table 9**Reasons for Wishing for High Levels of Education for Children**

	Community					Total
	D/Ahenkro N= 40 %	Pamuagya N= 19 %	Adomasa N= 20 %	Atesikrom N= 16 %	Asunsu N= 19 %	
Education						
is key to						
success	7.5	10.5	10.0	6.3	-	7.0
Responsible						
citizens to						
develop						
nation	25.0	26.3	35.0	25.0	15.8	25.4
Good						
Job/Emp-						
loyment	50.0	52.6	45.0	37.5	73.7	51.8
Gender						
Equity	-	-	5.0	12.5	10.5	4.4
Others	12.5	10.5	-	18.8	-	8.8
No						
Response	5.0	-	5.0	-	-	2.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

In Ghana, gender issues and opportunities have mostly favoured men. It is not therefore surprising that some of the respondents considered gender equity as one of the reasons for wishing higher education for both boys and girls. This assertion is supported by the respondents' belief that girls' education is as important as that of boys', as indicated in the next section.

Girls' Education is as Important as that of Boys

In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to state whether girls' education was as important as that of boys' by indicating whether they Strongly Agreed (SA), Agreed (A), Disagreed (D), Strongly Disagreed (SD) or Neither Agreed nor Disagreed (NAD). Out of the 114 respondents, 97 (85.1%) strongly agreed; 14 (12.3%) agreed; two (1.8%) disagreed whilst one person (0.9%) strongly disagreed (see Table 10).

Table 10 shows that most of the respondents consider female education to be as important as male education. For 85% or more to agree that the female needs education in the same way as the male needs it suggests that most of the respondents were interested in education (as indicated by their educational qualifications and the jobs that they do). They would therefore be interested in following or knowing about measures that were being pursued by the community to support child education, especially girl-child education. Thus, any suggestions that they would make for improving education in the Dormaa Municipality would be worth considering.

Table 10**Respondents' Position Regarding the View that "Girls' Education is as Important as that of Boys"**

Response	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
SA	32	80.0	17	89.5	16	80.0	16	100	16	84.2	97	85.1
A	6	15.0	2	10.5	4	20.0	-	-	2	10.	14	12.3
D	1	2.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5.3	2	1.8
SD	1	2.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.9
NAD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0
Total	40	100	19	100	20	100	16	100	19	100	114	100

Equal importance is given to male and female education in all the five communities under reference. For instance, in the Dormaa Ahenkro and Pamuagya communities, the response was 80% and 89% strongly agree respectively. The respective figures for Adomasa, Atesikrom, and Asunsu were 80%, 100% and 84.2%. That nobody disagreed to the assertion in areas such as Pamuagya, Adomasa and Atesikrom is interesting since these are peri-urban and rural areas. It is equally interesting, however insignificant it might appear to be, to note that two respondents from the urban area disagreed that females' education was as important as that of males'. We, however, do not know why the two respondents said this.

Girls' Education is a Good Investment

The questionnaire sought to find out whether the respondents believed that investing in girl-child education was a good thing. In all 84 (73.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed that it was a good investment. 26 (22.8%) of them agreed that it was good to invest in the girl-child. One person (0.9%) disagreed whilst three representing 2.6% strongly disagreed (see Table 11).

As can be read from Table 11, most of the respondents did believe that investing in girls' education was good. This goes to support the findings made by Adjinhah (2005) and Boye (2005) that female education could break the cycle of poverty for better and developed societies. Again, if people believe that investing in female education is good, why do only few girls achieve higher education?

Table 11**Respondents' Position Regarding the View that "Girls' Education is a Good Investment"**

Response	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
SA	29	72.5	14	73.7	12	60.0	15	5	14	73.7	84	73.7
A	8	20.0	4	21.1	8	40.0	1	6.3	5	26.3	26	22.8
D	1	2.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.9
SD	2	5.0	1	5.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	2.6
NAD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
Total	40	100	19	100	20	100	19	100	19	100	114	100

According to Vinod (1996) the same number of boys and girls enrol at the first grade level, but by fourth grade, only about 50% of girls remain in school, that is, there is high rate of female dropouts. Is it, once again, the case that parents do send the girls to school but it is the girls themselves who are not interested in school?

Girls' Education Deprives Family of Financial Resources

The study also sought to find out whether the respondents thought sending girls to school deprived families of finance/money. Ten (8.8%) of the respondents strongly agreed that girls' education deprived families of money. Seventeen (14.9%) agreed to the assertion. Forty two (36.8%) disagreed whilst 45 (39.5%) strongly disagreed as indicated in Table 12.

Again, from Table 12, a larger proportion (about 76.3% of the respondents disagree to the assertion that female education deprives families of financial resources. However, there seems to be some contradiction in the responses shown here and those presented in Tables 10 and 11. In Table 10, only 0.9% of the respondents say that girls' education is not as important as that of boys', and in Table 11 only 3.5% believe that girls' education is not a good investment. However, 23.7% think that girls' education deprives families of financial resources. It implies that even though most people believe in the education of the girl-child, some of them in real terms will not support girl-child education, especially when resources are limited, as they think that it will be waste of funds. This seems to support findings made by Follayan (1986), Mensah (1992) and The World Bank (1999) that when parents face financial constraints they give priority to male education.

Table 12**Respondents' Position Regarding the View that "Girls' Education Deprives Family of Financial Resources"**

Response	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
SA	2	5.0	4	21.1	2	10.0	2	12.5	-	-	10	8.8
A	6	15.0	2	10.5	4	20.0	5	31.3	-	-	17	14.9
D	17	42.5	9	47.4	10	50.0	3	18.8	3	15.8	42	36.8
SD	15	37.5	4	21.1	4	20.0	6	37.5	16	84.2	45	39.5
NAD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
Total	40	100	19	100	20	100	19	100	19	100		

It makes interesting reading that, in a rural community like Asunsu, 84.2% of the respondents strongly disagreed to the assertion that female education deprives families of resources. It is equally good that the majority of respondents from Atesikrom, which is also a rural community, strongly disagree. It gives the hope that if necessary measures are put in place there can be significant improvement in female education. On the other hand, it is a bit worrying that as many as 20% from Dormaa Ahenkro, who were fundamentally self-employed people, agreed and/ or strongly agreed to the assertion. The situation in Pamuagya (a peri-urban community) also raises similar concerns since 30.6% agreed to the assertion.

Male and Female Children should be Allowed the Same Period of Education

Out of the total of 114 respondents, 67 (58.8%) strongly agreed that they wanted their girls to go through a long period of education or schooling as they would have their boys. Twenty seven (representing 23.7%) agreed to the statement, and whilst 13 (representing 11.4%) disagreed, only seven (representing 6.1%) strongly disagreed (see Table 15).

In most areas in Ghana, most people think that females endanger their marital lives when they stay in school for long periods, as the female is just a supporter of the male and accepted as caretaker of the home (Ijere, 1991; Agyemang, 2004).

Table 13**Respondents' Position Regarding the View that "Male and Female Children should be Allowed the Same Period of Education"**

Kind of Support	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
SA	21	52.5	11	57.9	11	55.0	12	75.0	12	63.2	67	58.8
A	9	22.5	3	15.8	7	35.0	2	12.5	6	31.6	27	23.7
D	6	15.0	4	21.1	2	10.0	1	6.25	-	-	13	11.4
SD	4	10.0	1	5.3	-	-	1	6.25	1	5.3	7	6.1
NAD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	40	100	19	100	20	100	16	100	19	100	114	100

It is, therefore, heart warming that the majority (82.5%) of the respondents agreed that they would allow their daughters and sons the same length of educational period. This also raises similar concerns as was noted from the discussion on Table 12.

Support for Boys' and Girls' Education in the Dormaa Municipality

Apart from exploring the perception held by community members about girl-child education, the study also elicited views from the respondents on the kinds of support the community gave to boys' and girls' education in the area. Two issues were involved here. First, the study sought to find out what the respondents did to enable their children enrol in school; and second, what they did to keep the children in school after they had been enrolled. Thus, this section discusses the kinds of support stated by the respondents in the various communities.

Support towards Girl-Child Education

In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to state the kinds of support they provided towards the education of female children. This question wanted to find out what they did to let their female children enrol in school. The multiple responses yielded the following: 86 respondents, representing 27.6%, stated that they provided uniforms; 96 of them, representing 30.8%, stated guidance and counselling as the major support they provided to motivate their female children to enrol in school. Eighty two, representing 26.3% gave financial assistance whilst 48, who represented 15.4%, talked of enrolment drive (see Table 14).

Table 14**Support towards Girl Child Education**

Kind of Support	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Provision of School Uniform	29	30.5	15	25	14	25.5	11	26.5	17	27.9	86	27.5
Guidance and Counselling	32	33.5	17	28.5	17	30.8	13	31.7	17	27.9	96	30.8
Enrolment drive	9	9.5	11	18	10	18.2	5	12.5	13	21.2	48	15.4
Financial assistance	25	26.5	17	28.5	14	25.5	12	29.3	14	23.0	82	26.3
Total	95	100	60	100	55	100	41	100	61	100	312	100

It is obvious from Table 14 that guidance and counselling was the major thing most of the respondents did to help the girls to enrol in school. Guidance and counselling here also refers to educating the girls about the importance of education and the need to acquire it. This is important because it implies that female children of the area did not recognise, to some extent, the importance of education. The issue of school uniforms and financial assistance is also important because after counselling the children, we need to provide them the necessary physical needs. The children normally should be rest assured that their needs will be provided before they enrol in school.

Support to Keep Girl-Child in School

Counselling children and helping them to enrol in school is not enough to let them stay in school. For them to remain in school certain conditions ought to be met. Thus, we sought to find out what the respondents did to make girls remain in school after they had enrolled.

The multiple responses received indicated the following: 99, that is, 28.6% of the respondents provided money for lunch; 81, representing 23.4%, provided money for transportation to and from school; and whilst 57, representing 16.5%, provided money for snack, 109, forming a majority of 31.5% provided school materials (see Table 15).

Table 15**Support to Keep Girl Child in School**

Kind of Support	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Provision of Money for Lunch	33	29.5	16	27.1	18	30.5	15	27.8	17	27.4	99	28.6
Provision of Transportation to and from school	28	25.0	13	22.0	13	22.0	12	22.2	15	24.2	81	23.4
Provision of money for snack	14	21.5	11	18.9	10	16.9	11	20.4	11	17.7	57	16.5
Provision of school materials	37	33.0	19	32.2	18	30.5	16	29.6	19	30.6	109	31.5
Total	112	100	59	100	59	100	54	100	62	100	346	100

Table 15 indicates that the majority of the respondents provided school materials, which include stationery and other material needs. It is also encouraging that some of the respondents provided money for students to buy food in school since children who are constantly hungry hardly find any interest in school (Agyeman, 1993). Transportation is another important thing that encourages children to go to school everyday. If children have to walk long distances every morning and afternoon to and from school, it discourages them from going to school. However, it is not surprising that money for snack is rated lowest. This is because most people of the area in general normally do not take snacks. People are normally interested in the three major meals of the day (breakfast, lunch and supper). The rating of the above-mentioned items follows a similar pattern across the communities under reference.

Support towards Boy-Child Education

The study also sought to find out what the respondents did to send their male children to school. The multiple responses showed that: 91(27.8%) provided school uniforms, 93(28.4%) gave their boys guidance and counselling, 91(27.8%) gave financial assistance whilst 52(15.9%) stated enrolment drive (Table 16).

It must be noted that there were some differences in the rating of these items across communities. In Adomasa and Atesikrom, financial assistance was rated highest whilst in Dormaa Ahenkro, Pamuagya and Asunsu rated guidance and counselling highest. It is significant that a rural community like Atesikrom recognises financial assistance as the most important support that should be given

to a child. However, there seems to be a general agreement that guidance and counselling, financial assistance and provision of uniforms are almost equally important in the education of the boy child. As in the case of girl-child education, the major intervention by the respondents in male-child education is guidance and counselling. This implies that the children in the Dormaa Municipality need a lot of education (counselling) before they develop interest in education. It is, however, more significant that guidance and counselling for girls appears to be more important in terms of female education than that of the males. This assumption emanates from the fact that 30.8% as against 28.4% of the respondents favoured female education. More interesting is the fact that, in all the communities, guidance and counselling was rated highest for female education. It may also imply that the females are less interested in education than their male counterparts.

That 27.8% as against 26.3% of the respondent's favoured male education financially leaves room for some concern. It can be deduced from it that in real term the respondents supported males' education more than females' education (Mensah, 1992; World Bank, 1999). This is because the most practical way to support a child's education is the provision all financial needs. Financial assistance may cover other things like provision of uniforms, stationery, transport fares, payment of school fees and food.

Table 16**Support Towards Boy Child Education**

Kind of Support	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Provision of School Uniform	29	28.7	15	23.8	18	31.0	13	28.3	16	27.1	91	27.8
Guidance and Counselling	30	29.7	18	28.6	14	24.1	14	30.4	17	28.8	93	28.4
Enrolment Drive	16	15.8	13	20.6	8	13.8	4	8.7	11	18.6	52	15.9
Financial Assistance	26	25.7	17	27.0	18	31.0	15	32.6	15	25.4	91	27.8
Total	101	100	63	100	58	100	46	100	59	100	327	100

It must be noted that, both in Adomasa and Atesikrom, financial assistance was rated highest. It is significant that a rural community like Atesikrom recognises financial assistance as the most important support that should be given to a child.

Support to Keep Boy-Child in School

The respondents, again, stated what they did to keep or retain their boys in school. The multiple responses indicated that: 94(29.7%) provided money for lunch, 68 (21.5%) provided money for transportation and for snack whilst 51(16.1%) provided money for snack, 103(32.6%) provided school materials (Table 17). It is important to note that apart from Asunsu, where provision of money for lunch rated highest, provision of school materials was the highest in all the other communities.

Again, it is clear from Table 17 that provision of materials was the major thing done by most of the respondents to retain their boys in school, in the same way as in the case of the female education. However, this kind of support favoured the boys more than the girls. Whilst 32.6% of the respondents favoured males, 31.5% supported females. This also goes a long way to say why, as boys and girls climb the educational ladder, the number of girls decreases (Giddens, 1993; Atakpa, 1996; UNESCO, 2000). The provision of lunch also favoured the male child.

Table 17**Support to Keep Boy Child in School**

Kind of Support	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Money for Lunch	33	31.7	15	27.8	15	28.8	14	27.5	17	30.9	94	29.7
Transportation to and from Sch.	21	20.2	12	22.2	11	21.2	12	23.5	12	21.8	68	21.5
Money for Snack	16	15.8	9	16.7	7	13.5	9	17.6	10	18.2	51	16.1
Provision of School Materials	34	32.7	18	33.3	19	36.5	16	31.4	16	29.1	103	32.6
Total	104	100	54	100	52	100	51	100	55	100	316	100

Support from Community for Girls

The respondents were asked to state the kinds of support the Dormaa community as a whole provided towards girls' education in the area. The following were the various responses provided: 74(32.3%) provided guidance and counselling, 68(29.7%) provided financial assistance to needy girls, 52(22.7%) stated enrolment drive for girl-child education, whilst 35(15.3%) said the community provided school uniforms as presented in Table 18.

It must be noted that in Pamuagya financial assistance was rated highest, even though the difference between the provision of financial assistance and guidance and counselling was not that significant – a difference of one. In Atesikrom, there was no difference between guidance and counselling and financial assistance in terms of rating. The two most important items were guidance and counselling, and financial assistance.

From Table 18, it can be seen that the community supports girl-child education by providing, in order of importance: guidance and counselling, financial assistance, enrolment drive and provision of school uniforms. This appears encouraging as such measures can help improve girls' education. However, we cannot be sure of the extent to which these measures are effected and their actual influence on girl-child education in the area.

Table 18**Support from Community for Girls**

Kind of Support	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Guidance and Counselling	24	33.3	14	29.8	14	35.0	9	31.0	13	31.7	74	32.3
Financial Assistance	22	30.6	15	31.9	12	30.0	9	31.0	10	24.4	68	29.7
Enrolment Drive	18	25.0	11	23.4	7	17.5	6	20.7	10	24.4	52	22.7
Provision of School Uniform	8	11.1	7	14.9	7	17.5	5	17.3	8	19.5	35	15.3
Total	72	100	47	100	40	100	29	100	41	100	229	100

Support from Community for Boys

Furthermore, the respondents stated the kinds of support the community provided towards boy-child education. The following are the multiple responses provided by the respondents: 77(35.8%) mentioned financial assistance to brilliant but needy boys. On the other hand, 45(20.4%) and 32(14.5%) said enrolment drive and provision of uniform respectively (see Table 19).

Again, the Atesikrom community rated financial assistance highest, just as they did in the case of the support for female education. All the others rated guidance and counselling highest.

Similarly, Table 19 presents the kinds of support provided towards male education by the community. There is no indication that there was any special way female education was supported. Even the statistics indicated in Tables 18 and 19 show that community support was more inclined towards male education. For instance, in terms of guidance and counselling, male support had 34.8% as against 32.3% for females; for financial assistance, percentages were 30.3% for males and 29.7% for females. Although the percentage differences are not wide, they raise some concerns for female education. There must be conscious efforts to support and promote female education in the community.

Table 19**Support from Community for Boys**

Kind of Support	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Guidance and Counselling	25	36.2	15	34.1	16	35.6	9	33.4	12	33.4	77	34.7
Financial Assistance	22	32.0	13	29.5	14	31.1	1.0	37.0	8	22.2	67	30.4
Enrolment Drive	13	18.8	11	25.0	9	20.0	4	14.8	8	22.2	45	20.4
Provision of School Uniform	9	13.0	5	11.4	6	13.3	4	14.8	8	22.2	32	14.5
Total	69	100	44	100	45	100	18	100	36	100	221	100

Problems Faced in Attempting to Support Boy/Girl-Child Education

Having explored views on the kinds of support given, we also investigated problems associated with educational delivery support in the Community, as represented in Table 19. The respondents stated a number of problems they faced in their attempts to support girls in school. Thirty-seven (32.5%) stated that they faced financial difficulties. Twenty nine (25.4%) gave sexual relationships and teenage pregnancy on the part of the girls as a problem. Ten (8.8%) people indicated that there was lack of community support whilst another ten (8.8%) blamed peer pressure influence. Sixteen (14.0%) stated other problems. Twelve respondents did not answer the question. This represented 10.5% of the total number of respondents.

In attempting to support boy-child education, the following were stated as the problems the respondents faced on the part of the boys: Peer pressure, 31 (27.3%); Sexual relations, 7 (6.1%) financial difficulties, 33 (28.9%); truancy, 13 (11.4%), and other problems, 7 (6.1%). 23 respondents did not answer the question. This was 20% of the total number of respondents, as indicated in Table 20)

From Table 19, it can be observed that the highest rated problem is financial difficulty. The respondents unanimously agree that financial difficulty militates against children's education in general. However, between male and female education, the respondents think that it is financially more difficult to look after the female child. The rates of difficulty for male and female education are 28.9% and 32.5% respectively.

Table 20

Problem Faced in Attempting to Support Boy/Girl Child Education

Kind of problem	Community											
	D/A		PAMU		AD		ATK		ASU		TOTAL	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
	N=20	N=20	N=19	N=19	N=19	N=19	N=17	N=17	N=19	N=19	N=114	N=114
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Financial Difficulties	33.5	10.0	21.1	15.8	47.4	52.6	49.0	35.3	36.9	31.6	29	34.6
Sexual Relationship/ Teenage Pregnancy	8.5	8.0	-	42.1	5.3	21.1	10.9	29.3	10.5	21.1	6.1	27.5
Lack of community support	-	8.0	-	5.3	-	-	-	11.8	-	5.3	-	10.9
Peer Pressure/ Influence	33.5	7.0	52.6	-	5.3	5.3	6.8	-	26.3	26.3	27.2	10.9

Table 20 Continued

Kind of problem	Community											
	D/A		PAMU		AD		ATK		ASU		TOTAL	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
	N=20	N=20	N=19	N=19	N=19	N=19	N=17	N=17	N=19	N=19	N=114	N=114
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Truancy	11.5	-	5.3	-	15.8	-	3.7	-	10.5	-	11.4	-
Others	7.5	33.5	5.3	21.1	10.5	10.5	14.8	11.8	-	15.7	6.1	3.5
No Response	5.5	33.5	15.7	15.7	15.7	10.5	14.8	11.8	15.8	-	20.2	12.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

The above revelation is in consonance with their belief that female education deprives families of financial resources, as indicated in Table 13. No wonder they give priority to the male child.

Also, for 25.4% to cite sexual relations and teenage pregnancy as one of the difficulties they face with girls as against 6.1% with boys leaves much to be desired. This can be one of the reasons girls normally drop out of school. This is because when there is pregnancy the girl may not be able to go back to school after delivery whilst the boys can always be in school. It can also be one of the reasons why parents give priority to male education. Sometimes few of such girls make the attempt to go back to school but they do not succeed because of shame and shyness.

It is quite interesting to note that 10 (8.8%) of the respondents cited lack of community support as one of the problems they faced in their attempt to support girl-child education whilst none cited it as a problem in the case of attempting to support boys' education. This suggests that the community supports male education, however little it may be, more than female education.

Peer pressure/influence and truancy are two other problems faced by parents. The interesting thing to note here is that girls are not so much prone to these problems as compared to boys. If the ratio for boys and girls in terms of peer pressure is 27.2%: 8.8% respectively, then it is quite encouraging for female education. In addition, for none of the respondents to cite truancy against girls is significant. It suggests that if parents as well as the community are fully awake, they can help develop female education.

Suggestions for Improving Community Support for Girl-Child Education

Various suggestions were provided by the respondents for improving girl-child support in the Dormaa Municipality. Forty one (36%) of them suggested financial and material assistance or scholarships for girls. Fourteen (12.3%) suggested law enforcement, whilst 20 (17.5%) suggested counselling. Twenty one (18.4%) proposed mass education as the way forward. Thirteen (11.4%) suggested other ways (see Table 21). Table 21 clearly indicates that financial assistance was rated as what was needed most to improve female education in the Dormaa Municipality. It is encouraging that the rating of the items followed the same pattern in all the communities. Thus, it is important for the communities, including the Municipal Assembly, traditional authorities and other stakeholders, to pool resources to establish scholarships to help sponsor female education in the area.

The other suggestions are equally important to help develop female education in the area. However, the most significant ones are the financial and material assistance. This is because without financial assistance, law enforcement, counselling, mass education and others cannot help. This is not to say that these other forms of suggestion to improve female education are not important. It reflects the dilemma between idealism and reality. The real or practical way to help develop female education is the provision of financial and material assistance. The other forms of suggestion appear to be more idealistic. The child may be willing to enrol or go to school but if her practical needs are not provided, she will not have the motivation to study.

Table 21**Suggestions for Improving Community Support for Girl-Child Education**

Kind of Suggestion	Community											
	D/Ahenkro		Pamuagya		Adomasa		Atesikrom		Asunsu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Financial Assistance	14	35.0	7	36.8	5	25.0	7	43.8	8	42.1	41	36
Law Enforcement	1	2.5	3	15.8	2	10.0	4	25.0	4	21.1	14	12.3
Counselling	8	20.0	3	15.8	3	15.0	3	18.7	3	15.8	20	17.5
Mass Education	10	25.0	3	15.8	4	20.0	-	-	4	21.0	21	18.4
Others	4	10.0	2	10.5	5	25.0	2	12.5	-	-	13	11.4
No Suggestion	3	7.5	1	5.3	1	5.0	-	-	-	-	5	4.4
Total	40	100	19	100	20	100	16	100	19	100	114	100

Mass education and counselling are equally important ways of motivating girls to go to school. The education is not important for only the girl-child but also parents and the entire community. This is so because some of the people do not recognise the need for female education and so do not see why they should commit resources to finance female education. Therefore, the mass education and counselling are likely to debunk the wrong notions about female education.

Law enforcement is equally an important way to help develop female education. The mention of law enforcement implies that some people have to be forced to allow their female children to go to school. It means that they do not just want to send the female child to school although they may have the means to cater for them. Thus, the government, through the Municipal Assembly, has a role to play here; it has to enforce the law on free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (Article 25, 1992 Constitution of Ghana), which states that “All persons shall have the right to equal educational opportunities and facilities ... [and] basic education shall be free, compulsory and available to all”.

Other suggestions included: institution of awards for girls at all levels of education, formation of students’ clubs, enrolment of more girls in schools, regular visits by parents to schools, and others.

The Interview Data

As indicated earlier, the researcher interviewed 20 girl prefects to find out their views on support for females education in the Dormaa municipal community. Three each of girl prefects were selected from the four peri-urban and

rural communities whilst eight were chosen from the urban community. The following are the pieces of information gathered from the interviews.

In the first place, the girls were asked the highest levels of education they wanted to attain. As many as 16 out of the 20 indicated their willingness or desire to acquire university education. Of the 16 girls eight came from Dormaa Ahenkro, three from Pamuagya, two from Adomasa whilst two were from Atesikrom and one Asunsu. Of the remaining four two from Asunsu wanted training college, whilst one each from Adomasa and Asunsu mentioned polytechnic and senior high school respectively.

The responses suggest that the majority of the girls were desirous of higher education. This reflects exactly what respondents of the questionnaire indicated - most of them wanted their daughters to attain tertiary education especially university education. It implies that if girls are given the opportunity or the right environment and the necessary support, they will be ready to be in school.

However, the pattern of response in terms of community distribution raises some concern: That all the girls from Dormaa Ahenkro indicated their desire to acquire university education is significant. It may be due to their exposure to issues relating to university education. In most cases, children in urban centres get to interact with students from higher institutions and so get encouraged unlike the rural areas where tertiary students are not common. It is therefore not surprising that some of the girls from the rural communities mentioned training college and senior high. This means that those in the rural

areas need more education on the existence and importance of higher education, for example, university education.

However, the girls indicated that there was no support designed to assist girls in the area. For example, 12 of them stated that there was no support; two said that sometimes some assistance was given to few female students who were brilliant but needy; one person said they were sometimes provided with school materials; whilst five said on some special occasions they were counselled. This is in contrast with what the respondents of the questionnaire said. They said the community supported female education in a number of ways, as provided in Tables 20 and 21. However, the issues of counselling and provision of school materials appear to be true in both instances. Over here, the pattern of response in terms of community distribution was not different. The responses followed the same pattern across the communities.

When asked why they wanted to acquire the levels of education they stated, One of them said: "I really want to attend the university because if you don't attend university, people don't respect you." Other girls gave a number of reasons. Twelve of them said higher education could offer them better jobs; they would become rich and famous and self-sufficient. Those who said teacher training and senior higher education were enough said there was no need for girls to stay in school for a long time; they should finish early and assist their parents. Three of them could not offer any reasons for their wish for the levels of education they stated.

In terms of parental support eight of the girls said their parents helped them financially, whilst three said their parents supported them financially and provided school materials like school uniforms and stationery. Only one person said she was financially supported and was provided with text books and exercise books as well; seven of them said their parents provided them with everything they needed. Thus, it appears from the responses that at the individual levels, parents are willing to support their female children's education. However, at the community level, things appear to be different so if some parents are so poor that they cannot support their girls in school, such girls will have no formal education.

Again, a number of suggestions to support and enhance girl-child education were stated by the girl prefects. These included: Education (sensitization) and counselling on the need for girl-child education; financial assistance from the municipal assembly; provision of school materials (books, uniforms, bags); awards for girls who perform creditably in school. Others included: by-laws to prevent girls from trading and attending night clubs; educating parents on the need to reduce the performance of household chores by girls and how to control their girls and prevent them from indulging in sexual relationships; and parents visiting girls in school so as to encourage and motivate them. Emphasising the need for financial assistance, one girl remarked: "As for me, I think the most important assistance for the girl-child should be financial". This is a significant statement since financial difficulty appears to be the major setback for female education.

The responses from the girl prefects suggest that if they are given the necessary assistance, they will be ready to study, learn and acquire education to nurture their talents.

Summary

This chapter discussed data collected for the study. It discussed issues relating to support towards girl-child education; the problems that inhibit female education and the way forward for girl-child education in the Dormaa community. Thus, in the next chapter, the summary and conclusions of the discussion are provided. Recommendations suggestions for further studies are also offered.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarises the research process and the research findings. It also draws conclusions from the findings and makes recommendations for practice.

Summary

In this study an attempt was made to identify and examine the Dormaa Municipal community's perception of female-child education and the kinds of support provided by the community towards female-child education as well as suggestions for improving educational delivery. To guide the study, the following questions were posed:

1. How does the Dormaa community perceive girl-child education?
2. What kind of support does the Dormaa community provide towards girl-child education?
3. What are the problems that inhibit the Dormaa community from supporting girl-child education?

4. How do the respondents think the community support for girl-child education in the district can be encouraged?

In order to find answers to these questions, the descriptive survey design was adopted since the study was interested in the description of an existing phenomenon, as well as the target population's perception about female education (McWilliams, 1996). The target population was the Dormaa Municipal community. Since the researcher could not have contacted every member of the community, views were sampled from Chiefs and Queenmothers, the Municipal Director of Education, the Girl-child Education Unit Co-ordinator, the Member of Parliament for the area, Nine Assembly members, Ten religious leaders, 20 PTA and SMC chairpersons, 20 heads of basic schools, the Municipal Chief Executive and the Co-ordinator, 20 girl prefects and 40 teachers. In all 134 people were contacted.

Second, questionnaire and interviews were used to gather data for the study. Apart from the girl prefects, all the other respondents filled the questionnaire. The questionnaire included both open-ended and closed-ended questions. These instruments were pre-tested in the Berekum Municipal community to test their reliability.

Third, different methods were used to analyse the data obtained from the data collection. The data obtained from the closed-ended was analysed using the computer software Scientific Product for Service Solutions (SPSS). In the case of the open-ended questionnaire, the data collected were presented as: ratios,

frequencies and percentages. The data were organised according to the research questions that guided the study.

Summary of Findings

Research Question One: How does the Dormaa Community

Perceive Girl-Child Education?

The responses gathered indicated a number of perceptions the community had about female education. First, the majority (93%) had a positive perception about female education and, therefore, wanted their females attain university (or tertiary) education. Second, the majority (51.8%) were of the opinion that higher education led to the acquisition of better job/employment opportunities which was a sign of success and responsible citizenship.

Third, almost all the respondents agreed (i.e. 85.1% strongly agreed and 12.3% agreed) that girls education was as important as that of boys. Similarly, almost all of them agreed that investing in girls' education was an important venture.

Fourth, a larger proportion of the respondents rejected the assertion that female education deprived families of financial resources. However, the range of responses to this question raised some contradictions in relation to whether girls' education was as important as that of boys and whether it was good to invest in girls' education. Whilst only a very small number k (0.9% and 3.5%) rejected the last two ideas, 23.7% agreed that girls' education deprived families of financial resources. The implication is that although most people believe in educating the

girl child they will normally give priorities to male educations. Finally, the majority of the respondents (82.5%) thought it would be wise to allow their girls and boys the same length of education.

Research Question 2: What kind of support does the Dormaa Community Provide towards girl-child education?

From the analysis, it was gathered that support provided towards girl-child education in order of priority included: guidance and counselling (30.8%), provision of school uniforms (27.6%), financial assistance (26.3%), and enrolment drive (15.4%).

Also, the support provided to keep the girl-child in school, in order of priority, included: provision of school materials (31.5%), provision of money for lunch (28.6%), transportation to and from school (23.4%) and provision of money for snack (16.5%).

Research Question 3: What are the problems that inhibit Communities in the Dormaa Municipality from supporting girl-child education?

Again, the respondents answered questions relating to the problems they faced in supporting girl-child education delivery. The problems they faced, according to the responses, in order of intensity included: financial difficulties (32.5%), sexual relations/teenage pregnancy (25.4%), lack of community support (8.8%), peer pressure/influence (8.8%) and others (14.0%) included child labour, hesitation by girls and diverse thoughts of parents.

Research Question 4: How do the respondents think community support for Girl-child education in the district can be encouraged?

The respondents suggested a number of measures that could help improve and encourage female education delivery in the municipality. These included: financial/material scholarship assistance (36%), law enforcement (12.3%), counselling (17.5%) mass education (18.4%) and others (11.4%) which included enrolment drive for girls, formation of students clubs, institution of awards for girls, and visiting of children regularly to know their problems.

Conclusions

Based on the findings, it was realised that the community supports the girl child by providing the guidance and counselling, school uniforms, financial assistance and enrolment drive. Again the community provides School materials, money for lunch, transportation and money for snack so as to keep the girl-child in school.

Also, it has been noticed that the majority of the people in the community had strongly agreed that girls' education is as important as that of boys, since higher education leads to the acquisition of better employment opportunities which is a sign of success.

Moreover, in supporting girl child education delivery the community faced serious financial difficulties. Others difficulties were sexual relations, teenage pregnancy inadequate community support and peer pressure. To improve community support education, the researcher made suggestions including:

improvement in the community's financial assistance, provision of scholarship, law enforcement, counselling mass education, formation of students clubs and institution of awards for girls.

Finally, the study observed that although there are various kinds of support for girl-child education in the Municipality, they are not adequate to enable the female child to have a successful education as compared to the male child. The following recommendations were made.

Recommendations

Based on the conclusions, the following recommendations are made:

1. Since financial difficulties were found out to be the biggest problem militating against female education in the Dormaa Municipality, the Dormaa Municipal Assembly and other stakeholders should help establish scholarship schemes for girls in the area. It is recommended, also that the Dormaahene Nana Agyemang Badu, set aside some portion of the Dormaaman Educational Endowment Fund to specifically cater for girls.
2. It is again recommended that there should be law enforcement agencies to deal with men who impregnate girls who are in school. Further more, it is equally important to restrain girls from indulging in sexual relationships so as to prevent teenage pregnancies.

Suggestions for Further Research

It is important to note that the findings made in this research are quite tentative and, therefore it is significant that researchers begin to consider researching into various issues concerning female education. Thus, after a thorough analysis of the data and the findings, the following suggestions are offered:

1. Since this research was limited in scope in terms of the sample size, a follow-up study can be conducted to confirm, refute or add to the findings made here.
2. Although, the study has identified that there has been some support, many girls are not able to complete second cycle education. Therefore, a study can be done to find out why this is happening.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Topic: Community Support for Girl-Child Education in the Dormaa District of the Brong-Ahafo Region of Ghana

Questionnaire for Respondents

A. Personal Data

1. Sex: Male Female
2. Age:
3. Occupation/Position:
4. Educational qualification (Tick where applicable)
 - (a) Basic Education (b) Secondary Education
 - (c) Teacher Certificate (d) Tertiary Education
 - (e) Other(s) (specify)
5. No. of children..... (a) Boys..... (b) Girls
6. Number of children in school
7. How many of your boys attend school?
8. How many of your girls attend school?
9. What highest level of education do you want your girl-child to attain?
.....
10. What highest level of education do you want your boy child to attain?
.....

11. What are your reasons?

.....

B. General attitude towards Girls Education

The following statements are notions that people have on female education. What is your view on each statement? Please tick (√) the box which is most appropriate to your feeling.

No.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree
12	Girls' education is as important as that of boys					
13	Girls' education is a good investment					
14	Sending girls to school deprives family of financial resources gained through petty trading					
15	I want my girl child to have a long period of schooling as I will have my boy					

C. Community support for girls and boys' education

16. Indicate the kind of support that you provide towards the education of your girl-child (tick [√] as many as are applicable).

- (a) [] Provision of school uniform
- (b) [] Guidance and Counselling
- (c) [] Enrolment drive for girl-child education

- (d) Financial assistance to needy girls
- (e) Other(s) (specify).....

17. Indicate the kind of support you provide to keep your girl-child in school (tick [√] as many as are applicable).

- (a) Provision of money for lunch
- (b) Provision of transportation to and from school
- (c) Provision of money for snack during break time
- (d) Provision of school materials e.g. exercise books, pens, etc.
- (e) Other(s) (specify).....

18. Indicate the kind of support that the community gives towards the education of the girl-child/ward (tick [√] as many as are applicable).

- (a) Provision of school uniform for girls
- (b) Guidance and Counselling for girls
- (c) Enrolment drive for girl-child education
- (d) Financial assistance to needy girls
- (e) Other(s) (specify)

19. Indicate the kind of support that you provide towards the education of your boy-child/ward (tick [√] as many as are applicable)

- (a) Provision of school uniform for boys
- (b) Guidance and Counselling for boys
- (c) Enrolment drive for boy-child education
- (d) Financial assistance to needy boys
- (e) Other(s) (specify).....

20. Indicate the kind of support you provide to keep your boy-child in school (tick [√] as many as are applicable).

- (a) Provision of money for lunch

- (b) Provision of transportation to and from school
- (c) Provision of money for snack during break time
- (d) Provision of school materials e.g. exercise books, pens, etc.
- (f) Other(s) (specify).....

21. Indicate the kind of support that the community gives towards the education of the boy-child/ward (tick [√] as many as are applicable).

- (a) Provision of school uniform
- (b) Guidance and Counselling
- (c) Enrolment drive for boy-child education
- (d) Financial assistance to needy boys
- (e) Other(s) (specify)

22. What problems do you face in your attempt to support the girl-child education?

23. What problems do you face in your attempt to support the boy-child education?

24. What suggestion(s) do you have for improving community support for girl-child education in the Dormaa District?

.....

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire for the Director of Education

Topic: Community Support for Girl-Child Education in the Dormaa District of the Brong-Ahafo Region of Ghana

Questionnaire for Respondents

A. Personal Data

1. Sex: Male [] Female []
2. Age:
3. Occupation/Position
4. Educational qualification (Tick [√] where applicable)
 - (a) Basic Education [] (b) Secondary Education []
 - (c) Teacher Certificate [] (d) Tertiary Education []
 - (e) Other(s) (specify)
5. No. of children..... (a) Boys..... (b) Girls
6. Number of children in school
7. How many of your boys attend school?
8. How many of your girls attend school?
9. What highest level of education do you want your girl-child to attain?
.....
10. What highest level of education do you want your boy child to attain?
.....
11. What are your reasons?

B. General attitude towards Girls Education

The following statements are notions that people have on female education. What is your view on each statement? Please tick (√) the box which is most appropriate to your feeling.

No.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree
12	Girls' education is as important as that of boys					
13	Girls' education is a good investment					
14	Sending girls to school deprives family of money gained through petty trading					
15	I want my girl child to have a long period of schooling as I will have my boy					

Community support for girls and boys' education

16. How does the Dormaa community provide support towards the education of girl-child (tick [√] as many as are applicable).

- (a) [] Provision of school uniform
- (b) [] Guidance and Counselling
- (c) [] Enrolment drive for girl-child education
- (d) [] Financial assistance to needy girls
- (e) [] Provision of school materials e.g. exercise books, pens, etc
- (f) Other(s) (specify).....

17. How does the Dormaa community provide support to keep girl-child in school (tick [√] as many as are applicable).

- (a) [] Provision of school uniform for boys
- (b) [] Guidance and Counselling for boys
- (c) [] Enrolment drive for boy-child education
- (d) [] Financial assistance to needy boys
- (e) [] Provision of school materials e.g. exercise books, pens, etc.
- (f) Other(s) (specify).....

18. What problems do you face in your attempt to support the girl-child education?

19. What problems do you face in your attempt to support the boy-child education?
.....
.....

20. What suggestion(s) do you have for improving community support for girl-child education in the Dormaa Municipality?
.....

APPENDIX C

Interview Guide

Introduction: (Warming up)

- (1) Introduce yourself and create an opportunity for interviewee to introduce him / herself.

(Probe: Educational background, occupation, etc).

- (2) Briefly explain the purpose of your study and the role of interviewee.

- (3) Please, how many children do you have?

(Probe: number of boys, girls, etc).

- (4) How many children do you have in school? (Probe: Number of boys, girls).

- (5) What highest level of education would you want your children to attain?

(Probe: boys, girls? Reasons for preference)

B. Community support for girls and boys' education.

- (6) What kind of support do you provide towards the education of your children?

(Probe: girls, boys?)

- (7) What kind of support does the community give towards the education of children? (Probe: boys, girls?)

- (8) What problems do you face in your attempt to support the girl-child education? (Probe: Why do you say so?)

- (9) Do you encounter similar problems in your attempt to support the boy-child education?

- (10) What suggestion(s) do you have for improving community support for girl-child education in the Dormaa District?